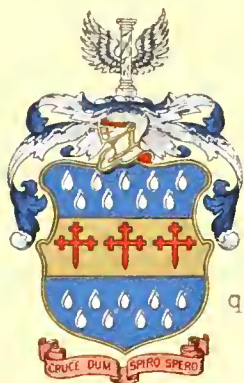




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THE
AMERICAN GEOGRAPHY;

OR, A
VIEW OF THE PRESENT SITUATION
OF THE
UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

CONTAINING

Astronomical Geography; Geographical Definitions, Discovery, and General Description

Of their Boundaries; Mountains; Lakes; Bays, and Rivers; Natural History; Productions; Population;
Government; Agriculture; Commerce; Manufactures; and History.—A concise account
of the War, and of the important Events which have succeeded:

A PARTICULAR DESCRIPTION OF

KENTUCKY, THE WESTERN TERRITORY, THE TERRITORY SOUTH OF OHIO,
AND VERMONT:

Of their Extent; Civil Divisions; Chief Towns; Climates; Soils; Trade; Character; Constitutions;
Courts of Justice; Colleges; Academies; Religion; Islands; Indians; Literary and Humane
Societies; Springs; Curiosities; Histories; Mines; Minerals; Military Strength, &c.

WITH A VIEW OF THE

BRITISH, SPANISH, FRENCH, PORTUGUESE, AND DUTCH DOMINIONS, ON THE CONTINENT,
AND IN THE WEST INDIES.

By JEDIDIAH MORSE, A. M.

A NEW EDITION,
REVISED, CORRECTED, AND GREATLY ENLARGED, BY THE AUTHOR,
AND ILLUSTRATED WITH MAPS.

LONDON:
PRINTED FOR JOHN STOCKDALE, PICCADILLY.

1794.

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A D V E R T I S E M E N T.

THE present Edition of the following Work is brought down by regular communications from the Author to the end of March last. It was the Publisher's intention to have given a complete Set of Maps, but finding that Mr. Arrowsmith had in great forwardness two large ones of America, compiled from authentic materials that he had recently received, and knowing that preference would be given to him, being universally and deservedly allowed to be the first Geographer now living; the Publisher has presented him with the whole of the documents he had in his possession, and declined proceeding with the plates that he had already begun—which of course, had they been finished, must have enhanced the price of the present volume. Most of the Readers will probably be satisfied with the Maps now given. Such as wish for further information will be highly gratified by the sight of Mr. Arrowsmith's Maps, which he understands will soon be published under the following titles :

1st. A Map of the United States of North America on a large Scale, shewing the Progress of Geography to the present Time.

2d. A Map of that Part of North America to the North of the 40th degree of Latitude, exhibiting all the Discoveries made in the Interior Part of that Continent.

Piccadilly, 22d April, 1794.

P R E F A C E.

THIS Book may with more propriety be considered as a New Work, than a new Edition, being so much altered and enlarged.

The Science of Geography, like many other Sciences, is not stationary. So rapid are the improvements made in it by travellers and navigators—so fast do alterations and revolutions succeed each other, that it is not an easy matter for a Geographer to keep pace with them. What is this year a geographical truth, may the next year be a geographical error, and require correction. The astonishing progress of things in the United States since the year 1789, will readily suggest to the reader the reason of the many alterations and additions in this new Edition of the American Geography, as contained in the following work.

The Author does not forget here very gratefully to acknowledge his great obligations to several of the gentlemen who sustain some of the highest offices in the general government, and to many gentlemen of respectability in the several States, for their very liberal and valuable communications, which have contributed not a little to render the work accurate and useful. He hopes that such use has been made of their friendly assistance, as will induce them to continue it, and to afford in future every information, and every hint, which may tend to render the work more perfect.

CHARLESTOWN, (Massachusetts) 1793.

P R E F A C E

TO THE FIRST EDITION.

SO imperfect are all the accounts of America hitherto published, even by those who once exclusively possessed the best means of information, that from them very little knowledge of this country can be acquired. Europeans have been the sole writers of American Geography, and have too often suffered fancy to supply the place of facts, and thus have led their readers into errors, while they professed to aim at removing their ignorance. But since the United States have become an independent nation, and have risen into Empire, it would be reproachful for them to suffer this ignorance to continue; and the rest of the world have a right now to expect authentic information. To furnish this has been the design of the author of the following work; but he does not pretend that this design is completed, nor will the judicious and candid expect it, when they consider that he has trodden, comparatively, an unbeaten path; that he has had to collect a vast variety of materials; that these have been widely scattered; and that he could derive but little assistance from books already published. Four years have been employed in this work, during which period the author has visited the several States in the Union, and maintained an extensive correspondence with men of science; and in every instance has endeavoured to derive his information from the most authentic sources; he has also submitted his manuscripts to the inspection of Gentlemen in the States which they particularly described, for their correction. It is possible, notwithstanding, and indeed very probable, that inaccuracies may have crept in; but he hopes there are none of any great importance, and that such as may be observed, will not be made the subject of severe censure, but ascribed to some pardonable cause. He flatters himself, however, that the work now offered to the public, will be found to be

as accurate, complete, and impartial, as the present state of American Geography, and History, could furnish. After all, like the nation of which it treats, it is but an infant, and, as such, solicits the fostering care of the country it describes; it will grow and improve as the nation advances towards maturity, and the author will gratefully acknowledge every friendly communication which will tend to make it perfect.

In the prosecution of the work, he has aimed at utility rather than originality; and, of course, when he has met with publications suited to his purpose, he has made a free use of them; and he thinks it proper here to observe, that, to avoid unnecessary trouble, he has frequently used the words as well as the ideas of the writers, although the reader has not been particularly apprized of it.

For the author distinctly to acknowledge the obligations he is under to many citizens of these States, as well as to some foreigners of distinction, among us, would swell this preface to an improper length: he cannot forbear, however, to express his peculiar obligation to EBENEZER HAZARD, Esq. Postmaster-General of the United States, for permission of free access to his very large and valuable Collection of papers, from which he has derived much of his historical information. This collection has been made with unwearied care and minute exactness; and the papers, which are of unquestionable authenticity, are the best and most complete *depositum* of facts relating to the history of America, from its first settlement, that is to be found in the United States. The Author's acknowledgements are likewise especially due to Captain THOMAS HUTCHINS, Geographer General of the United States, for his particular friendship and assistance.

Every citizen of the United States ought to be thoroughly acquainted with the Geography of his own country, and to have some idea, at least, of the other parts of the world; but as many of them cannot afford time and expense necessary to acquire a complete knowledge of the several parts of the Globe, this book offers them such information as their situation in life may require; and while it is calculated early to impress the minds of American Youth with an idea of the superior importance of their own country, as well as to attach them to its interests, it furnishes a simplified account of other countries, calculated for their juvenile capacities, and to serve as an introduction to their future improvement in Geography.

CHARLESTOWN, (Massachusetts) 1789.

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INTRODUCTION.

Of ASTRONOMY, as connected with, and Introductory to, the SCIENCE of
GEOGRAPHY.

THE earth is now universally considered as a Planet, and, in company with six other bodies, of a similar nature, revolves round the Sun as its center. Some acquaintance with the motions, times, distances, and magnitudes of these heavenly bodies is necessary in order to a complete knowledge of Geography. The science which treats of the planets and other heavenly bodies, is called *Astronomy*. Hence the propriety of introducing this work with a short account of that science.

Astronomy was first attended to by the shepherds, on the beautiful plains of Egypt and Babylon. Their employment led them to contemplate the stars. While their flocks, in the silence of the evening, were enjoying sweet repose, the spangled sky naturally invited the attention of the shepherds. The observation of the heavenly bodies afforded them amusement, and at the same time assisted them in travelling in the night. A star guided the shepherds to the manger where our blessed Saviour was born. By the aid of a lively imagination, they distributed the stars into a number of constellations or companies, to which they gave the name of the animals which they represented.

The Sun, the most glorious of the heavenly luminaries, is the fountain of heat and light to the planets which revolve round it. The paths which the planets describe in their revolutions are called their orbits. The number of planets in the Solar System is seven; whose names, according to their nearness to the sun, are Mercury, Venus, the Earth, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the new planet Herschel. The two first of these, because they move within the orbit of the earth, are called *inferior*, or rather *interior* planets—the four last, because they move without the earth's orbit, are called *superior*, or more properly *exterior* planets.

To express another distinction, these seven planets are called *primary* planets, in reference to fourteen other bodies, which are called *secondary planets*, *moons*, or *satellites*, which revolve round their respective primaries from west to east, and at the same time move with them round the Sun. The earth has one satellite or moon, which performs its revolution in 29d. 12h. 44m. at the distance of about 60 semidiameters of the earth, or 239,100 miles, and is carried with the earth round the sun once in a year. Jupiter has four moons; Saturn has seven,* and is also encompassed with a broad ring. The diameter of the ring is, to the diameter of Saturn, as 9 to 4; and the space between the body of Saturn and the ring is equal to the breadth of the ring.

* The celebrated Dr. Herschel has lately discovered two other Satellites belonging to Saturn, so that his whole number, before supposed to be only *five*, is *seven*. The *seventh* is nearest to the planet, and the *sixth* next. The syderial revolution of the former he supposes to be completed in about twenty-two hours and an half, that of the latter in about one day and nine hours.

Herschel* has two moons, one of which revolves in about nine, the other in about thirteen and an half days.

Of the several ASTRONOMICAL SYSTEMS of the WORLD.

BY the word system is meant an hypothesis or supposition of a certain order and arrangement of the several parts of the universe, by which the astronomers explain all the phenomena or appearance of the heavenly bodies, their motions, changes, &c. The most famous systems, or hypotheses, are the Ptolemaic, the Tychonic, or Brahean, and the Pythagorean, or Copernican System.

The PTOLEMAIC SYSTEM.

This system, so called from Claudius Ptolemy, a celebrated astronomer of Pelusium, in Egypt, who adopted and defended the prevailing system of that age, supposes the earth immoveably fixed in the center of the universe; and that the moon, the planets, and the stars, all move round it from east to west, once in twenty-four hours, in the following order: the Moon, Mercury, Venus, the Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn, and the fixed stars. These were all supposed to be fixed in separate crystalline spheres, and to be included in another, called the *Primum Mobile*, which gives motion to all the rest.

This system owed its origin to the sensible appearances of the celestial motions. It was taken for granted, that the motions those bodies appeared to possess, were real; and not dreaming of any motion in the earth, nor being acquainted with the distinctions between absolute, relative, or apparent motion, the philosophers were incapable of forming adequate ideas of these particulars, and thence reduced to the necessity of being misled by their own senses, for want of that assistance which after ages produced. It is easy to observe, they had no notion of any other system but our own, nor of any other world but the earth on which we live. They were persuaded that all things were made for the use of man; that all the stars were contained in one concave sphere, consequently, at an equal distance from the earth; and that the *Primum Mobile* was circumscribed by the empyrean heaven, of a cubic form, which they supposed to be the blissful abode of departed spirits. But modern observations and discoveries have sufficiently shewn the absurdities of this system, so that it is now abandoned by all the learned, and hardly ever mentioned but to be exploded. Even in the infancy of astronomy, it was found insufficient to account for all the motions of the heavenly bodies, without having recourse to such absurd suppositions that a novice in literature would be ashamed to propose.

The BRAHEAN SYSTEM.

Tycho Brahe, a nobleman of Denmark, and one of the most eminent astronomers of his time, proposed another system to account for the motion of the heavenly bodies. Unwilling to admit of the motion of the earth, and convinced that the Ptolemaic hypothesis could not be true, he contrived another, different from any thing before of-

* This planet was discovered by William Herschel, L. L. D. F. R. S. in 1782. In a paper which Dr. Herschel communicated to the Royal Society in London, in 1788, giving an account of the elements of this new planet, and its two satellites, he observes, that one of these satellites revolves in about nine days, the other in about thirteen and an half. The planet moves at about double the distance of Saturn. The quantity of matter is seventeen times greater than the quantity of matter in the earth; its magnitude about 80 times greater; its density about 4 times less; and the power of gravity on its surface makes a heavy body fall 18 feet in a second. The Doctor, for the purpose of making greater discoveries in the heavens, has constructed a grand reflecting telescope, forty feet long, and of such diameter as that it is easy to walk through it.

Dr. Price's Letter to Dr. Stiles, 1788.

ferred to the world. In this hypothesis, the earth is supposed to be at rest in the center of the universe, and the sun, together with the planets and fixed stars, to revolve about the earth in twenty-four hours; and at the same time all the planets, except the moon, revolve about the sun. But this was even more absurd than that of Ptolemy, and it accordingly was soon exploded.

The COPERNICAN, or TRUE SOLAR SYSTEM.

Copernicus, the author of this system, was born at Thorn, in Royal Prussia, in 1473. This hypothesis, which is now universally adopted by all the learned in Europe, supposes the sun to be in the center of the system, and that all the planets move round him in the order we have already mentioned. These, together with the comets, form the constituent parts of the Solar System. See Plate, where this is represented, and by which an adequate idea of the whole may be easily obtained.

But it must be observed, that, though the orbits of the planets are circles in the scheme, they are not really so, but ellipses, and the sun placed in one of the focus's. All the planets have one common focus, in which the sun is placed. This supposition readily solves all the appearances observable in the motion of the planets, and also agrees with the strictest philosophical and mathematical reasoning.

All the planets, in their revolutions, are sometimes nearer to, and sometimes farther from, the Sun; a consequence of that luminary's not being placed in the center of each orbit, and their being ellipses. Hence, also, we see the reason why the planets move faster as they approach nearer to the sun, and slower as they recede from the sun.

If a right line, called by some the vector radius, be drawn from the sun through any planet, and supposed to revolve round the sun with the planet, this line will describe, or pass over every part of the plane of the orbit; so that the vector radius may be said to describe the area of the orbit.

In the solar system are observed two principal laws which regulate the motions of all the planets. These laws are the following:

1. "The planets describe equal areas in equal times." That is, the vector radius, in equal portions of time, describes equal areas or portions of the space contained within the planet's orbit.

2. "The squares of the periodical times of the planets are as the cubes of their mean distances from the sun." That is, as the square of the time which any planet takes to describe its orbit, is to the square of the time taken by any other planet to run through its orbit, so is the cube of the mean distance of the former from the sun, to the cube of the mean distance of the latter from the sun.

These are the two famous laws of Kepler, a great astronomer, who flourished about the beginning of the seventeenth century, and who deduced them from a multitude of observations; but the first who demonstrated these laws, was the great Sir Isaac Newton.

By the second law, the relative distances of the planets from the sun are known; and were the real distance of any one of them determined, the absolute distances of all the others would be obtained. By the transit of Venus over the sun in 1761, we now know the real distances of the planets from the sun much better than before: these, together with the other necessary particulars for forming a competent idea of the solar system, are exhibited in the following table:

A TABLE of the Diameters, Periods, &c. of the several Planets in the Solar System.

Names of the planets.	Diameters in English Miles.	Mean distances from the sun.	Annual periods round the sun.	Diurnal rotation on its axis.	Hourly motion in its orbit.	Hourly motion of its equator.	Inclination of axis to orbit.
			y. d. h.	d. h. m.			° ' "
Sun	890,000			25 6 0		3,818	8 0
Mercury	3,000	36,841,468	0 87 23	unknown	109,699	unknown	unknown
Venus	9,330	68,891,486	0 224 17	24 8 0	80,295	43	75 0
Earth	7,970	95,173,000	1 0 0	1 0 0	68,243	1,042	23 29
Moon	2,180	ditto.	1 0 0	29 12 44	22,290	9½	2 10
Mars	5,400	145,014,148	1 321 17	0 24 40	55,287	556	0 0
Jupiter	94,000	494,990,976	11 314 18	0 9 56	29,083	25,920	0 0
Saturn	78,000	907,956,130	29 176 15	unknown	22,101	unknown	unknown
*Herschel	637,600	1800,000,000	82 34 0	unknown	unknown	ditto.	ditto.

By the above Table, a competent idea of the Solar System may be obtained.

The C O M E T S.

Besides the planets and stars mentioned above, we perceive, in the expanse of the universe, many other bodies belonging to the system of the sun, that seem to have much more irregular motions. These are the comets, that, descending from the far distant parts of the system with great rapidity, surprise us with the singular appearance of a train, or tail, which accompanies them, become visible to us in the lower parts of their orbits, and, after a short stay, go off again to vast distances, and disappear.

They are large opaque bodies, which move in all possible directions. Some revolve from west to east; some from east to west; others from south to north, or from north to south. Their orbits have very different inclinations to the ecliptic. Some have conjectured, that the comets were intended by the all-wise Creator to connect systems, and that each of their several orbits includes the sun, and one of the fixed stars. The figures of the comets are very different. Some of them emit beams on all sides like hair, and are called hairy comets, others have a long, fiery, transparent tail projecting from the part which is opposite to the sun. Their magnitudes also are different. Some appear no bigger than stars of the first magnitude; others larger than the moon.

Though some of the ancients had more just notions of these bodies, yet the opinion having prevailed, that they were only meteors generated in the air, like those we see in it every night, and in a few moments vanishing, no care was taken to observe or record their phenomena accurately, till of late. Hence this part of astronomy is very imperfect. The general doctrine is, that they are solid, compact bodies, like other planets, and regulated by the same laws of gravity, so as to describe equal areas in equal times by radii drawn from the common center. They move about the sun, in very eccentric ellipses, and are of much greater density than the earth; for some of them are heated in every period to such a degree as would vitrify or dissipate any substance known to us. Sir Isaac Newton computed the heat of the comet that appeared in the year 1680, when nearest the sun, to be 2000 times hotter than red hot iron, and that being thus heated, it must retain its heat till it comes round again, although its period should be more than 20,000 years; and it is computed to be only

* According to Dr. Herschel, it is about 80 times larger than the earth, which would make its diameter 637,600 miles.

575. The number of comets belonging to our system is unknown. All those which have been observed have moved through the ethereal regions, and the orbit of the planets, without suffering the least sensible resistance in their motions, which sufficiently proves that the planets do not move in solid orbs. Of all the comets, the periods of three only are known with any degree of certainty, being found to return at intervals of 75, 129, and 575 years; and of these, that which appeared in 1680 is the most remarkable. This comet, at its greatest distance, is about 11 thousand 200 millions of miles from the sun, while its least distance from the center of the sun, is about 490 thousand miles; within less than one third part of the sun's semidiameter from his surface. In that part of his orbit which is nearest to the sun, it flies with the amazing velocity of 880,000 miles in an hour; or above 244 miles in a second: a velocity much greater than any we are acquainted with, that of light excepted; and the sun, as seen from it, appears 100 degrees in breadth, consequently 40,000 times as large as he appears to us. The astonishing distance that this comet runs out into empty space, naturally suggests to our imagination the vast distance between our sun and the nearest of the fixed stars, of whose attractions all the comets must keep clear, to return periodically and go round the sun. Dr. Halley, to whom every part of astronomy, but this in a particular manner, is highly indebted, has joined his labours to those of the great Sir Isaac Newton on this subject. Our earth was out of the way when this comet last passed near her orbit: but it requires a more perfect knowledge of the motion of the comet, to be able to judge if it will always pass by us with so little effect; for it may be here observed, that the comet, in one part of his orbit, approaches very near to the orbit of our earth: so that in some revolutions, it may approach near enough to have very considerable if not fatal effects upon it.

Of the FIXED STARS.

The fixed stars, though they do not constitute a part of the solar system, must be considered here, as they are of infinite use in the practice of geography. They are readily known from the planets by their twinkling. They are observed never to change their situations with respect to each other, and hence they obtained the name of fixed stars; they shine by their own light; and there is the greatest reason to think they are suns fixed in the centers of other systems, having planets and comets revolving round them like our sun. They appear of various sizes, owing to their different distances; those sizes are generally distinguished into six or seven classes, called magnitudes; the largest and brightest are said to be of the first magnitude; those of the next class, or degree of brightness, are called stars of the second magnitude, and so on to the last, or those just visible to the naked eye. But, besides these, there are scattered in every part of the heavens, a prodigious number of others, called telescopic stars, from their being invisible without the assistance of that instrument. Great part of the modern astronomy, indeed, owes both its rise and perfection to that admirable machine. The distance between the earth and the nearest fixed star is astonishing. The orbit of the earth is at least 162 millions of miles in diameter; yet this prodigious difference has no effect on the distance of the star, which appears as far from the earth, when in the nearest, as in the farthest point of its orbit. It has been computed, by some of the most able astronomers, that if a cannon ball continued to move with the same velocity as when first discharged from the piece, or 480 miles an hour, it would not reach the nearest fixed star in less than 700,000 years. Light, which is transmitted from one body to another almost instantaneously, takes up more time in passing from the fixed stars to this earth, than we

do in making a voyage to Europe; so that if all the fixed stars were now struck out of existence, they would appear to us to keep their stations for several months yet to come. It is impossible, therefore, that they should borrow their light from the sun, as do the planets. The distance, therefore, is too great for the power of human beings to conceive; the understanding is bewildered, and lost in the contemplation. But, though the fixed stars are placed at such immense distances from us and from each other, and are, doubtless, suns illuminating different worlds, yet astronomers, in order to facilitate their computations, consider them all as equally distant from our sun, forming the surface of a sphere, inclosing our system, and called the celestial sphere: a supposition which may be strictly admitted, considering the astonishing distance of the nearest fixed star.

A constellation is a number of stars which appear to lie in the neighbourhood of one another on the surface of the celestial sphere, and which astronomers, for their easy remembrance, suppose to be circumscribed with the outlines of some ancient or other figure, whereby the motions of the planets is more readily described and composed. These constellations are eighty in number; twelve of which are in the zodiac, thirty-six in the northern, and thirty-two in the southern hemisphere. The number of stars in the whole amounts to two thousand eight hundred and forty-three, of which twenty are of the first, sixty-five of the second, two hundred and five of the third, four hundred and eighty-five of the fourth, six hundred and forty-eight of the fifth, and one thousand four hundred and twenty of the sixth magnitude.

These stars, by not altering their situation in respect to one another, serve astronomers as fixed points, whereby the motions of other bodies may be compared; and, accordingly, their relative positions have been sought after with the most assiduous care, during many ages, and catalogues of the observations have, from time to time, been published by those who have been at the pains to make them. Among these, the most copious, and at the same time the most accurate, is that called the *Historia Cœlestis* of Mr. Flamsteed. To consider these stars as designed merely to decorate the sky, and form a rich and beautiful canopy for this earth, would derogate from the wisdom of the Creator. Astronomers, therefore, with much reason have considered the fixed stars as so many suns attended with a number of revolving planets, which they illuminate, warm, and cherish. If this be true, there are as many systems as there are fixed stars. These may also revolve round one common center, forming one immense system of systems. All these systems, we may conceive, are filled with inhabitants suited to their respective climes; and are so many theatres, on which the great Creator and Governor of the Universe displays his infinite power, wisdom, and goodness. Such a view of the starry heavens must fill the mind of every contemplative beholder with sublime, magnificent, and glorious ideas of the Creator.

The ancient Egyptian priests, to whom the Greeks owed all their philosophical learning, are supposed to have been the first acquainted with the true system of the world. Pythagoras learned it in Egypt, and taught it to his disciples, after his return to Europe. But it was so totally forgotten during the ages of ignorance, that when Copernicus, a celebrated astronomer, revived it, in the fifteenth century, he was considered as the author rather than the restorer. Some of the learned immediately adopted the hypothesis, and it would probably soon have been universally received, had it not met with a formidable opposition from an ignorant and bigotted clergy. Nursed in the lap of indolence, and inveterate enemies to every species of free and impartial inquiry, they condemned the Copernican system, under pretence of its being repugnant to the sacred writings. The thunder of the Vatican was employed to
silence

silence the voice of reason, and the dread of ecclesiastical censures almost deterred mankind from thinking. At last, the reformation in religion gave a fatal blow to superstitious tyranny; the rays of learning broke through the night of ignorance, and genuine philosophy triumphed over the chicanery of the schools: mankind were now convinced, that the scriptures were never intended to explain the system of philosophy, but to make us humane, virtuous, and happy; that it is agreeable to the Great Author of our being to contemplate his works, and display the wonders of his creating hand. From this fortunate æra the sciences made rapid strides toward perfection, and every day produced a discovery of some new truth, or the detection of some ancient error. Proofs were multiplied in confirmation of the Copernican system, which is now established on a foundation not to be shaken. The astonishing harmony which prevails among the several parts, prove it to have been the work of a divine hand; and that nothing else than Infinite Wisdom could have planned so beautiful a fabric.

The limits we are confined to, will not admit of our multiplying proofs to establish the Copernican system; the following therefore only will be added; but these, if there were no other, would be more than sufficient for the purpose.

1. The planets Mercury and Venus are always observed to have two conjunctions with the sun, but no opposition: this could not happen, unless their orbits were circumscribed by that of the earth.

2. Mars, Jupiter, and Saturn have each their conjunctions and oppositions to the sun, alternately and successively, which they could not have, unless their orbs were exterior to that of the earth.

3. The greatest elongation or distance of Mercury from the sun is about twenty-eight degrees, and that of Venus forty-seven degrees; which answers exactly to their distance in the Copernican system: but according to the Ptolemaic, they must often be seen in opposition to him, or at the distance of 180 degrees.

4. In this disposition of the planets, they will all of them be sometimes much nearer to the earth than at others; the consequence of which is, that their brightness and splendour, as well as their apparent diameters, will be proportionally greater at one time than at another; and this we observe to be true every day. Thus the apparent diameter of Venus, when greatest, is near sixty-six seconds; when least, not more than nine seconds and a half: that of Mars, when greatest, is twenty-one seconds; when least, only two and an half. But if the Ptolemaic hypothesis be true, they must always be equal.

5. All the planets sometimes appear in direct motion; sometimes stationary, and sometimes retrograde. These appearances must happen according to the Copernican system, but are absolutely repugnant to any other.

6. The bodies of Mercury and Venus, in their superior conjunction with the sun, pass behind the body of that luminary, and in the inferior conjunction are seen to transit or pass over his disk, in the form of a round black spot. These phenomena are necessary in the Copernican system, but impossible in that of Ptolemy.

7. The times in which these conjunctions, oppositions, stations, and retrogradations of the planets happen, are not such as they would be, were the earth at rest in the center; but precisely such as would happen, if the earth and all the planets move about the sun, in the order, and with the velocities assigned them in the Copernican system. Consequently this, and no other, can be the true system of the world.

Of GEOGRAPHY.—*Its Rise and Progress.*

GEOGRAPHY is a word derived from the Greek,* and literally signifies a description of the earth, its figure, magnitude, and the positions of the several parts of its surface.—Geography is either *universal*, as it relates to the earth in general, or *particular*, as it relates to any single part of it.

This science, like all others of a practical nature, has advanced towards perfection by slow, and, in some periods of time, by almost imperceptible degrees. In the infancy of the world the figure of the earth was unknown. It was generally supposed to be a plane, of a circular surface, terminated by the heavens; that this plane was of no remarkable thickness; and that the regions below it were the habitations of spirits.

Observations, however, soon demonstrated, that this was not the real figure of the earth. The desire of keeping up a mutual intercourse between each other, and of exchanging their different commodities, induced the inhabitants of ancient times to undertake journeys of considerable length; and these were extended in proportion as the inhabitants spread themselves into distant countries. Their principal guides in these journeys were the heavenly bodies. The sun was their direction during the day, and the stars supplied his place in the night. The plains of Asia, where these discoveries were made, are extremely favourable for contemplating the face of the heavens during the night. Blessed with a climate generally serene, the sky is rarely obscured; and the practice of sleeping upon the house tops, which has been continued from the earliest ages, rendered the positions of the stars familiar. They could not help observing, that, while the greater part revolved round the earth, some in the northern parts remained nearly in the same situation; and that the sun every day, in his greatest elevation, was directly opposite to the place of these stars. Hence it was natural to imagine, that all the heavenly bodies revolved round some fixed point situated near those stars; and this point they called the pole. Assisted by these discoveries, however imperfect, and animated with a desire of carrying on a commerce with distant people, they travelled to very remote countries, and traded with the inhabitants of other climes. Those who directed their journeys to the south, could not help observing, that the fixed point round which the heavens appeared to revolve, was nearer the horizon there than in their own country; and that new stars appeared in the southern extremities of the heavens, which they had not seen before. On the contrary, those who directed their course towards the north, perceived that some of the stars in the southern hemisphere became more depressed, and those in the northern more elevated than in their own country. Hence they saw that the earth was not a plane, as they had at first imagined, but a curve. They further observed, that after passing over equal distances in the direction of the meridian, the greatest and least elevations of the stars were equally increased or diminished; and hence they found, that in the direction of the meridian, at least, the surface of the earth was circular. From this period geography improved gradually by travels, by commerce, and by conquest.

Homer has described so many places with great accuracy and precision, that Strabo considered him as the first among the geographers of early times.

Thales divided the year into 365 days; which was undoubtedly a method discovered by the Egyptians, and communicated by them to him. It is said to have been invented by the second Mercury, surnamed Trismegistus, who, according to Eusebius, lived about 50 years after the Exodus. From the days of Thales, who flourished in

the

* Γεωγραφία, from γῆ, terra, et γράφω scribe.

the sixth century before Christ, very little seems to have been done towards the establishment of geography for 200 years.

The expedition of Alexander, who extended his conquests into India, and to the borders of Scythia, made the Greeks acquainted with many countries very remote from their own. That conqueror entertained in his service two engineers, Diognetus and Bæton, whose business consisted in measuring, and keeping an accurate account of his marches. Pliny and Strabo have preserved these measures; Arrian has handed down to us the particulars of the navigation of Nearchus and Onesicritus, who sailed back with Alexander's fleet from the mouth of the Indus to those of the Euphrates and Tigris. By reducing Tyre and Sidon, the Greeks informed themselves of all the places to which the Phenicians traded by sea; and we know that their commerce extended even to the British Islands. The successors of Alexander in the East, by carrying their conquests to the mouths of the Ganges, obtained a general knowledge of many parts of India. Ptolemy Evergetes led his armies into Abyssinia; and from his marches and success in that distant country, a general knowledge of it was obtained. But geography acquired still greater advantages from the conquests of the Romans. Ambitious of establishing an universal monarchy, and of forcing all the inhabitants of the earth to submit to the Roman eagles, they carried their armies into very remote countries, and conquered the inhabitants of distant climes. Hence the geographers of those times were enabled to describe countries before hardly known, and correct the errors of former writers. The great roads of the empire, measured through their whole extent, proved extremely useful; and the Itineraries, though often altered, and sometimes incorrect, afforded considerable assistance. Accordingly most of the valuable geographical treatises wrote by the ancients, were composed during the reigns of the Roman emperors.

Timocharis and Aristillus, who began to observe about 295 years before Christ, seem to have been the first who attempted to fix the longitudes and latitudes of the fixed stars, by considering their distances from the equator. One of their observations gave rise to the discovery of the precession of the Equinoxes, which was first observed by Hipparchus about 150 years after; and he made use of Timocharis and Aristillus' method, in order to delineate the parallels of latitude, and the meridians on the surface of the earth; thus laying the foundation of the science of geography as we have it at present.

Strabo and Ptolemy are the first among the ancient geographers, and dispute the chair of precedence. The geography of Ptolemy is more extensive; it takes in a greater part of the earth, while it seems equally circumstantial every where: But this very extent renders it more suspected: it is not easy to be every where exact and correct. Strabo, on the contrary, relates very little more than what he saw with his own eyes; he made a vast number of voyages to gain the experience necessary to give the requisite certainty to his accounts, and is very short in what he relates from others. Strabo was a philosopher as well as a geographer. Good sense, perspicuity, accuracy, and solidity of judgement are visible in every part of his works. Ptolemy, however, by disposing his geography by latitudes and longitudes, opened a way for improvement, and pointed out a method for carrying the art to perfection. The discovery of the longitudes and latitudes immediately laid a foundation for making maps, or delineations of the surface of the earth *in plano*, on a very different plan from what had been attempted before. Formerly the maps were little more than rude outlines and topographical sketches of different countries. The earliest were those of Sesostris, mentioned by Eustathius; who says, that "this Egyptian king, having traversed great part of the earth, recorded his march in maps, and gave copies of his maps not only to the Egyptians, but to the

Scythians, to their great astonishment."—Some have imagined, that the Jews made a map of the holy land, when they gave the different portions to the nine tribes at Shiloh: For Joshua tells us, that they were sent to walk through the land, and that they *described it in seven parts in a book*; and Josephus tells us, that when Joshua sent out people from the different tribes to measure the land, he gave them, as companions, persons well skilled in geometry.

Eratosthenes was the first who attempted to reduce geography to a regular system, and introduced a regular parallel of latitude. This was traced over certain places where the longest day was of the same length. He began it from the straits of Gibraltar; and it thence passed through the Sicilian sea, and near the southern extremities of Peloponnesus. From thence it was continued through the island of Rhodes and the bay of Issus; and there entering Cilicia, and crossing the rivers Euphrates and Tigris, it was extended to the mountains of India. By means of this line, he endeavoured to rectify the errors of the ancient map, supposed to be that of Anaximander. In drawing this parallel, he was regulated by observing where the longest day was fourteen hours and an half, which Hipparchus afterwards determined to be the latitude of 36 degrees.

The first parallel through Rhodes was ever afterwards considered with a degree of preference, like the foundation stone of all ancient maps; and the longitude of the then known world was often attempted to be measured in stadia and miles, according to the extent of that line, by many succeeding geographers. Eratosthenes soon after attempted not only to draw other parallels of latitude, but also to trace a meridian at right angles to these, passing through Rhodes and Alexandria, down to Syene and Merce; and as the progress he thus made tended naturally to enlarge his ideas, he at last undertook a still more arduous task, namely, to determine the circumference of the globe by an actual measurement of a segment of one of its great circles. He knew that at the summer solstice, the sun was vertical to the inhabitants of Syene, a town on the confines of Ethiopia, under the tropic of Cancer, where they had a well sunk for that purpose, on the bottom of which the rays of the sun fell perpendicular the day of the summer solstice: he observed, by the shadow of a wire set perpendicular in an hemispherical basin, how much the sun was on the same day at noon distant from the zenith of Alexandria; and found that distance to be one 50th part of a great circle in the heavens. Supposing then Syene and Alexandria to be under the same meridian, he concluded the distance between them to be the 50th part of a great circle upon the earth; and this distance being by measure 5000 stadia, he concluded the circumference of the earth to be 250,000 stadia; but as this number divided by 360 would give 694 $\frac{2}{3}$ stadia to a degree, either Eratosthenes himself, or some of his followers, assigned the round number 700 stadia to a degree; which multiplied by 360, makes the circumference of the earth 252,000 stadia;* whence both these measures are given by different authors as that of Eratosthenes.

Astronomy was not neglected by the ancient geographers. They were convinced, that without its assistance no great progress could be made in their art. Their instruments, indeed, were inaccurate and imperfect, but they were assiduous in their observations. They generally determined the latitudes of places by the shadow of a gnomon of some known height; but they had no other method for determining the longitudes of

* A stadium is the 8th part of a mile, hence 252,000 stadia are equal to 31,500 miles. The real circumference of the earth is but 25,038 miles.

places than that of observing the eclipses of the moon ; they knew, that by comparing the times when any of these phenomena happened at different places, the difference of longitude between them might be known.

The parts of the earth's surface known to the ancients were confined within narrow bounds. On the west, the Atlantic ocean and British isles limited their knowledge. The Fortunate islands, now called the Canaries, were the remotest lands they were acquainted with to the south. Their notions were very imperfect with regard to the northern countries. Though Scandinavia was known, yet that, and some other countries on the same continent, were considered as large islands. It is not easy to determine what place the ancients understood by *Ultima Thule* ; many take it for Iceland ; but Procopius thinks it was a part of Scandinavia.

Their knowledge of Sarmatia and Scythia was far from extending to the sea which bounds Russia and Great Tartary on the north and east. Their discoveries went no farther than the Rippean mountains, which now divide Russia from Siberia. The western frontier of China seems to have bounded the knowledge of the ancients on the east. Ptolemy, indeed, had a very imperfect notion of the southern parts of that extensive empire. He composed his system of geography about 150 years after Christ, in the reign of Antoninus Pius. The principal materials he made use of for composing this work, were *the proportions of the gnomon to its shadow*, taken by different astronomers at the times of the equinoxes and solstices ; calculations founded upon the length of the longest days ; the measures or computed distances of the principal roads contained in their surveys and itineraries ; and the various reports of travellers and navigators, who often determined the distances of places by hearsay and conjecture. All these were compared together, and digested into one uniform body or system ; and afterwards were translated by him into a new mathematical language, expressing the different degrees of longitude and latitude, according to the invention of Hipparchus, but which Ptolemy had the merit of carrying into full practice and execution, after it had been neglected for upwards of 250 years. With such imperfect and inaccurate materials, it is no wonder to find many errors in Ptolemy's system. Neither were these errors such as had been introduced in the more distant extremities of his maps, but even in the very center of that part of the world which was the best known to the ancient Greeks and Romans, and where all the famed ancient astronomers had made their observations.—Yet this system, with all its imperfections, continued in vogue till the beginning of the present century. All the others, which now make so conspicuous a figure in the commerce of Europe, were unknown. How far they extended their discoveries with regard to Africa, cannot certainly be known. Some are of opinion, that they were acquainted with the whole coast, having sailed round the southern extremity, now called the Cape of Good Hope, and extended their voyages from the Red Sea to the Mediterranean. Ptolemy, however, seems to insinuate, that the southern parts had escaped their knowledge. Indeed, the opinion almost universally embraced by the ancients, that the torrid zone was uninhabitable, seems to prove, that their knowledge of Africa was very confined ; because, as great part of that country lies in the burning zone, their acquaintance with it must have convinced them, that the general notion was founded on mistake.

The discovery of the southern parts of Africa was reserved for the Portuguese. Animated with a desire of finding a passage to the East Indies, they coasted along the western side of Africa, and, in the fifteenth century, completed the design. They passed the Cape of Good Hope, and pursued their course to the Indies. The passage being thus opened, several European nations, desirous of sharing in the rich commerce

of the east, sent their ships to the Indian sea, where they discovered the Asiatic islands, and penetrated to the empire of Japan. The voyages of the Russians have completed our knowledge of the eastern parts of the continent of Asia.

The prodigious length of the voyage to India, round the southern extremity of Africa, induced Christopher Columbus to attempt the discovery of a shorter tract. About the end of the fifteenth century he crossed the Atlantic ocean; but, instead of the Indies, he found America, and put the crown of Castile, under whose auspices the voyage was undertaken, in possession of a New World.

The improvements in geography which since have taken place, have been owing to the great progress made in astronomy. More correct methods and instruments for observing the latitude have been found out; and the discovery of Jupiter's Satellites have afforded a much easier method of finding the longitudes than was formerly known. The voyages made by different nations also, which are now become frequent, have brought to our knowledge, a vast number of countries utterly unknown before. The voyages of Captain Cooke, and other late navigators and travellers, have contributed greatly to the improvement of geography during the present century; so that now the geography of the utmost extremities of the earth is in a fair way of being much better known to the moderns than that of the adjacent countries was to the ancients.

FIGURE, MAGNITUDE *and* MOTION *of the* EARTH.

THE fundamental principles of geography are, the spherical figure of the earth; its rotation on its axis; its revolution round the sun; and the position of the axis or line round which it revolves, with regard to the celestial luminaries. That the earth and sea taken together constitute one vast sphere, is demonstrable by the following arguments:

1st, Such a figure is best adapted to motion. 2d, The higher the eye is placed, the more extensive is the prospect; whence it is common for sailors to climb up to the tops of the masts to discover land or ships at a distance. But this would give them no advantage were it not for the convexity of the earth; for upon an infinitely extended plane, objects would be visible at the same distance whether the eye were high or low; nor would any of them vanish till the angle under which they appeared became too small to be perceptible. 3d, To people on shore, the mast of a ship at sea appears before the hull; but were the earth an infinite plane, not the highest objects, but the biggest, would be longest visible; and the mast of a ship would disappear, by reason of the smallness of its angle, long before the hull. 4th, To people at sea, the land disappears, though near enough to be visible, were it not for the intervening convexity of the water. 5th, We argue from analogy, all the other planets being of a spherical figure. 6th, The earth has often been sailed round; as by Magellan, Drake, Dampier, Anson, Cooke, and many others; which demonstrates that the surface of the ocean is spherical; and that the land is very little different, may easily be proved from the small elevation of any part of it above the surface of the water. The mouths of rivers, which run 1000 miles, are not more than one mile below their sources; and the highest mountains are not quite four miles of perpendicular height: so that, though some parts of the land are elevated into hills, and others depressed into valleys, the whole may still be accounted spherical. 7th, An undeniable and indeed ocular demonstration of the spherical figure of the earth is taken from the round figure of its shadow, which falls upon the moon in the time of eclipses. As various sides of the earth are turned towards the sun during the time of different phenomena of this kind, and the shadow in all cases appears circular, it is impossible to suppose the figure of the earth to be any other

other than spherical. The inequalities of its surface have no effect upon the earth's shadow on the moon; for as the diameter of the terraqueous globe is very little less than 8000 miles, and the height of the highest mountain on earth not quite four, we cannot account the latter any more than the 2000th part of the former; so that the mountains bear no more proportion to the bulk of the earth, than grains of dust bear to that of a common globe.

The earth is not truly spherical, but an oblate spheroid, or flattened at the poles, something in the form of a flat turnip. Its diameter from east to west is a few miles longer than that from north to south. As many find it difficult to conceive how people can stand on the opposite side of the globe without falling off, their conception may be assisted by supposing all the various bodies on the earth's surface were of iron, and a very large magnet were placed at the center; then all bodies being attracted towards the center by the magnet they would not fall off, which way soever the earth should turn. Now the attraction of gravitation operates on *all* bodies, as that of magnetism does on iron only.

According to Norwood's measure of a degree, which is generally preferred, on supposition that the earth is a true sphere, its circumference is 25,020 miles. But by considering its true figure, its circumference at the equator is 25,038 miles, and the length of an elliptical meridian 25,927. Though the earth is an oblate spheroid, yet the difference between the two diameters and their two circumferences is but small. Had the difference been more considerable, it would have greatly affected all nautical and geographical conclusions deduced from a sphere; but the smallness of the difference renders the error scarcely discernible, unless the distance be very great, and the latitudes very high. In the construction of globes, maps, charts, &c. the earth is considered as a perfect sphere.

The earth, like the rest of the planets, has two motions, one round its axis, the other round the sun. It revolves round its axis once in 24 hours, and causes a continual succession of day and night, and an *apparent* motion of the heavenly bodies, from east to west. By this motion on its axis the inhabitants on the equator are carried 1040 miles in an hour. It completes its revolution round the sun once in a year, and occasions the difference in the length of the days and nights, and the agreeable variety in the seasons.

The diameter of the earth's orbit is 190,346,000 miles, and its circumference 597,987,646 miles. Its hourly motion in its orbit is 68,217 miles, which is 142 times greater than that of a cannon ball, which moves about 8 miles in a minute; and would be 22 years and 228 days in going from this earth to the sun. Many of the terrestrial phenomena depend upon the globular figure of the earth, and the position of its axis with regard to the sun; particularly the rising and setting of the celestial luminaries, the length of the days and nights, &c. It belongs to geography to take notice of the difference betwixt the same phenomena in different parts of the earth. Thus, though the sun rises and sets all over the world, the circumstances of his doing so are very different in different countries. The most remarkable of these circumstances is the duration of the light not only of the sun himself, but of the twilight before he rises and after he sets. In the equatorial regions, for instance, darkness comes on very soon after sunset: because the convexity of the earth comes quickly in between the eye of the observer and the luminary, the motion of the earth being much more rapid there than any where else. In our climate the twilight always continues between one and two hours, and during the longest days in the summer season it continues in a considerable degree during the whole night. In countries farther to the northward or southward, the
twilight

twilight becomes brighter and brighter as we approach the poles, until at last the sun does not appear to touch the horizon, but goes in a circle at some distance above it for many days successively. In like manner, during the winter, the same luminary sinks lower and lower, until at last he does not appear at all; and there is only a dim twinkling of twilight for an hour or two in the middle of the day. By reason of the refraction of the atmosphere, however, the time of darkness, even in the most inhospitable climates, is always less than that of light; and so remarkable is the effect of this property, that in the year 1682, when some Dutch navigators wintered in Nova Zembla, the sun was visible to them sixteen days before he could have been seen above the horizon had there been no atmosphere, or had it not been endowed with any such power. The reason of all this is, that in the northern and southern regions only a small part of the convexity of the globe is interposed betwixt us and the sun for many days, and in the high latitudes none at all. In the warmer climates the sun has often a beautiful appearance at rising and setting, by reason of the refraction of his light through the vapours which are copiously raised in those parts.—In the colder regions, halos, parhelia, aurora borealis, and other meteors, are frequent; the two former owing to the great quantity of vapour continually flying from the warm regions of the equator to the colder ones of the poles. The aurora borealis is owing, some say, to the electrical matter imbibed by the earth from the sun in the warm climates, and going off through the upper regions of the atmosphere to the place from whence it came. In the high northern latitudes, thunder and lightning are unknown, or but seldom heard of; but the more terrible phenomena of earthquakes, volcanoes, &c. are by no means unfrequent. These, however, seem only to affect islands and the maritime parts of the continent.

Notwithstanding the seeming inequality in the distribution of light and darkness, it is certain, that throughout the whole world there is nearly an equal proportion of light diffused on every part, abstracting from what is absorbed by clouds, vapours, and the atmosphere itself. The equatorial regions have indeed the most intense light during the day, but the nights are long and dark; while on the other hand, in the northerly and southerly parts, though the sun shines less powerfully, yet the length of time that he appears above the horizon, with the greater duration of the twilight, makes up for the seeming deficiency.

Were the earth a perfect plane, the sun would appear to be vertical in every part of it: for in comparison with the immense magnitude of that luminary, the diameter of this globe itself is but very small: and as the sun, were he near to us, would do much more than cover the whole earth; so, though he were moved to any distance, the whole diameter of the latter would make no difference in the apparent angle of his latitude. By means of the globular figure of the earth also, along with the great disparity between the diameters of the two bodies, some advantage is given to the day over the night: for thus the sun being immensely the larger of the two, shines upon more than one half of the earth; whence the unenlightened part has a shorter way to go before it again receives the benefit of his rays. This difference is greater in the inferior planets, Venus and Mercury, than in the earth.

D O C T R I N E of the S P H E R E.

DEFINITIONS and PRINCIPLES.

A SPHERE, with astronomers, is the whole frame of the world, as being of a globular figure, or more strictly, the *Primum Mobile*, which encloses all the other orbs and heavenly bodies. A direct

A direct or right sphere is, when both the poles of the world are in the horizon, and the equinoctial passes through the zenith; so that the equator and all its parallels, such as the tropics and polar circles, make right angles with the horizon, and are divided by it into two equal parts; so that the sun, moon, and stars ascend directly above, and descend directly below the horizon. See the Plate.

An oblique sphere is that where all the diurnal motions are oblique to the horizon. This is common to all parts of the earth, except those under the poles and the equator. In an oblique sphere, one of the poles is elevated above, and the other depressed below the horizon.

A parallel sphere is when one pole is in the zenith and the other in the nadir, in which the equator, and all its parallels, are parallel with the horizon: this position is peculiar to those parts which lie directly under the poles.

In geography the circles which the sun apparently describes in the heavens, are supposed to be extended as far as the earth, and marked on its surface. We may imagine as many circles as we please to be described on the earth, and their planes to be extended to the celestial sphere till they mark concentric ones on the heavens. Each circle is divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees, each degree is divided into 60 seconds. The circles supposed by geographers to be described in this manner, are denominated *great* and *less* circles.

Great Circles are those which divide either the celestial or terrestrial sphere into two equal parts. Of these there are six—the Equator, the Meridian, the Ecliptic, the Horizon, and the two Colures.

Less Circles are those which divide the sphere into two unequal parts; of which there are four, the two *Tropics* and the two *Polar Circles*.

Axis and Poles of the Earth.] The axis of the earth is an imaginary line passing through its center from north to south. The extreme points of the axis are called the poles.

Equator.] The equator is that line or circle which encompasses the middle of the earth, dividing the northern half from the southern. This line is often called the *equinoctial*, because, when the sun appears therein, the days and nights are equal in all parts of the world. From this line latitude is reckoned.

Meridian.] This circle, represented on the artificial globe by a brass ring, passes through the poles of the earth, and the *zenith* and the *nadir*, crossing the equator at right angles and dividing the globe into eastern and western hemispheres. It is called *meridian* from the Latin *meridies*, *mid-day*; because when the sun comes to the south part of this circle it is called noon, and the day is half spent. There are an infinite number of meridians, which vary as you travel east or west. Geographers assume one of the meridians for the first; commonly that which passes through the metropolis of their own country. The meridian of Philadelphia is the first for Americans; that of London for the English; and that of Paris for the French.

Zodiac.] If the two circles were drawn parallel to the ecliptic, at the distance of eight degrees on each side of it, the space, or girdle included between these two parallels, sixteen degrees broad, and divided in the middle by the ecliptic, will comprehend within it the orbits of all the planets, and is called the *Zodiac*.

Ecliptic.] The Ecliptic is a great circle, in the plane of which the earth performs her annual revolution round the sun, or in which the sun seems to move round the earth, once in a year. This circle is called the *Ecliptic*, from the word *Eclipse*, because no eclipse of the sun or moon happens, but when the moon is in or near the plane of this circle. It makes an angle with the equator of $23^{\circ} 30'$, and intersects it in two opposite parts,

parts, called the *Equinoctial points*, because when the sun is in either of these points, he has no declination, and shines equally to both poles, and the day is then equal to the night all over the world. The times when the sun passes through these points, are the 21st of March, and the 21st of September: The former is called the *vernal*, the latter the *autumnal* equinox.

The ecliptic is divided into twelve equal parts, of thirty degrees each, called signs. These begin at the vernal intersection of the ecliptic with the equator, and are numbered from west to east. The names and characters of the signs, with the months in which the sun enters them, are as follows:

Latin names of the signs.	English names.	Characters.	Months in which the sun enters them.
1 Aries	The Ram	♈	March
2 Taurus	The Bull	♉	April
3 Gemini	The Twins	♊	May
4 Cancer	The Crab	♋	June
5 Leo	The Lion	♌	July
6 Virgo	The Virgin	♍	August
7 Libra	The Scales	♎	September
8 Scorpio	The Scorpion	♏	October
9 Sagittarius	The Archer	♐	November
10 Capricornus	The Goat	♑	December
11 Aquarius	The Water-Bearer	♒	January
12 Pisces	The Fishes	♓	February

The first six are called northern, and the latter southern signs; because the former possess that half of the ecliptic, which lies to the northward of the equinoctial, and the latter that half which lies to the southward.

Horizon.] The horizon, represented on the artificial globe by a broad wooden circle, divides it into upper and lower hemispheres. There are, geographically speaking, two horizons, the *sensible* and the *rational*. The sensible horizon is that circle which limits our prospect; where the sky and the land, or water, appear to meet. The rational or real horizon, is a circle whose plane passes through the center of the earth, dividing it into upper and lower hemispheres.

The horizon is divided into four quarters, and each quarter into 90 degrees. The four quartering points, viz. east, west, north, and south, are called the *cardinal points*. The poles of the horizon are the zenith and the nadir. The former is the point directly over our heads; the latter the point directly under our feet.

Colures.] The two meridians that pass through the four above-mentioned points have particular names; that which passes through the first degrees of Aries and Libra is called the equinoctial *Colure*, and that which passes through the first degrees of Cancer and Capricorn is termed the solstitial *Colure*. These Colures cut each other at right angles in the poles of the world.

Circles of longitude in the heavens are great circles of the sphere imagined to pass through the poles of the ecliptic, and to cut the ecliptic at right angles, as the meridians do the equinoctial.

The latitude of any heavenly object is an arch of a circle of longitude, intercepted between the center of the object and the ecliptic. If the object be on the north side of the ecliptic, it is said to be in north latitude; if on the south, in south latitude.

Parallels of celestial latitude, are small circles drawn parallel to the ecliptic.

The

The longitude of any heavenly object is an arch of the ecliptic, intercepted between the first point of Aries, and a circle of longitude passing through the center of the object. The right ascension of any heavenly object is an arch of the equinoctial, intercepted between the first point of Aries, and a meridian passing through the center of the object.

The declination of any heavenly object is an arch of the meridian, intercepted between the center of the object and the equinoctial. If the object be on the north side of the equinoctial, it is said to have north declination; if on the south side, it has south declination. All small circles in the celestial sphere parallel to the equinoctial, are called parallels of declination. Among these are the tropic of Cancer, the tropic of Capricorn, the Arctic and Antarctic circles.

Tropics.] The tropics, are two circles drawn parallel to the equator, at the distance of $23^{\circ} 29'$ on each side of it. These circles form the limits of the ecliptic, or the sun's declination from the equator. That which is in the northern hemisphere, is called the tropic of Cancer, because it touches the ecliptic in the sign Cancer; and that in the southern hemisphere, is called the tropic of Capricorn, because it touches the ecliptic in the sign Capricorn. On the 21st of June the sun is in Cancer, and we have the longest day. On the 21st of December the sun is in Capricorn, and we have the shortest day. They are called *tropics*, from the Greek word ΤΡΕΠΟ, *to turn*, because when the sun arrives at them, he returns again to the equator.

Polar Circles.] The two polar circles are described round the poles of the earth at the distance of $23^{\circ} 29'$. The *northern* is called the *Arctic circle*, from *Arctos*, or the bear, a constellation situated near that place in the heavens; the *southern*, being opposite to the former, is called the *Antarctic circle*.—The polar circles bound the places where the sun sets daily. Beyond them the sun revolves without setting.

The azimuths, or vertical circles, are great circles passing through the zenith and nadir, and cutting the horizon at right angles.

The altitude of an heavenly object is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the center of the object and the horizon.

The zenith distance of any heavenly object, is an arch of a vertical circle, intercepted between the center of the object and the zenith. The meridian altitude, or meridian zenith distance, is the altitude, or zenith distance, when the object is in the meridian.

Zones.] The surface of the earth is supposed to be divided into five unequal parts called zones, each of which is terminated by two parallels of latitude. Of these five zones, one is called the torrid or burning zone; two are filed frigid or frozen; and two temperate; names adapted to the quality of the heat and cold to which their situations are liable.

The torrid zone is that portion of the earth over every part of which the sun is perpendicular at some time of the year. The breadth of this zone is forty-seven degrees; extending from twenty-three degrees and a half north latitude, to twenty-three degrees and a half south. The equator passes through the middle of this zone, which is terminated on the north by the parallel of latitude called the tropic of Cancer, and on the south by the parallel called the tropic of Capricorn. The ancients considered this zone as uninhabitable, on account of the heat, which they thought too great to be supported by any human being, or even by the vegetable creation; but experience has long since refuted this notion.

Many parts of the torrid zone are remarkably populous; and it has been found that the long nights, great dews, regular rains and breezes, which prevail in almost every
part

part of the torrid zone, render the earth not only inhabitable, but also so fruitful, that two harvests a year are very common. All sorts of spices and drugs are almost solely produced there; and it furnishes more perfect metals, precious stones, and pearls, than all the rest of the earth together.

This zone comprehends the East and West Indies, Philippine Islands, greater part of South America and Africa, and almost all Capt. Cook's discoveries, including the northern parts of New Holland.

The frigid zones are those regions round the pole where the sun does not rise for some days in the winter, nor set for some days in the summer. The two poles are the centers of these zones, which extend from these points to twenty-three degrees and a half nearly; that is, they are bounded by the northern and southern parallels of latitude of sixty-six degrees and a half. The part that lies in the northern hemisphere is called the north frigid zone, and is bounded by a parallel called the arctic or polar circle; and that in the southern hemisphere, the south frigid zone, and the parallel of latitude which bounds it, is called the antarctic, or polar circle. The northern frigid zone comprehends Nova Zembla, Lapland, part of Norway, Baffin's-Bay, part of Greenland, and part of Siberia.—The southern frigid zone has no land known to us. The two temperate zones are the spaces contained between the tropics and polar circles.

The northern temperate zone contains almost all Europe, the greater part of Asia, part of Africa, the United States of America, and the British Colonies.—The southern temperate zone comprizes the south part of New Holland, (including Botany-Bay) Cape of Good Hope and Cape Horn.

In the frigid zones the longest day is never below 24 hours; in the temperate zones not quite so much, and in the torrid never more than 14 hours.

Climates.] The word *climate* has two significations, the one common, and the other geographical. In common language, the word is used to denote the difference in the seasons and the temperature of the air. When two places differ in these respects, they are said to be in different climates.

In a *geographical* sense, a climate is a tract of the earth's surface, included between the equator and a parallel of latitude, or between two parallels of such a breadth, as that the length of the day in the one, be half an hour longer than in the other. Within the polar circles, however, the breadth of a circle is such, that the length of a day, or the time of the sun's continuance above the horizon without setting, is a month longer in one parallel, as you proceed northerly, than in the other.

Under the equator, the day is always twelve hours long. The days gradually increase in length as you advance either north or south from the equator. The space between the equator, and a parallel line drawn at the distance of $8^{\circ} 25'$, where the days are twelve hours and a half long, is called the first climate; and by conceiving parallels drawn in this manner, at the increase of every half hour, it will be found that there are twenty-four climates between the equator and each of the polar circles. Forty-eight in the whole.

Under the polar circles, the longest day is twenty-four hours. The sun, when at the tropics, skims the horizon without setting. As you advance from the polar circles to the poles, the sun continues above the horizon for days, weeks, and months, in a constant increase, until you arrive at the poles, where the sun is six months above the horizon; and the whole year may be said to consist of but one day and one night.

There are thirty climates between the equator and either pole. In the first twenty-four, between the equator and each polar circle, the period of increase for every climate

climate is half an hour. In the other fix, between the polar circles and either pole, the period of increase for each climate is a month. These climates continually decrease in breadth as you proceed from the equator, as may be seen by attending to the following table :

Climates.	Longest day.	Latitudes in which the respective climates begin and end.	T A B L E.	
			<i>Names of Countries and remarkable Places, situated in the respective Climates, north of the Equator.</i>	
		d. m.	WITHIN THE FIRST CLIMATE LIE,	
1	12½	8 25	1	The Gold coast in Africa, Molucca in East Indies, Cayenne & Surinam in S. Amer.
2	13	16 25	2	Abyssinia, Siam, Madras, Darien, Barbadoes, Tobago, &c.
3	13½	23 50	3	Mecca, Bombay, Bengal, Canton, Mexico, Jamaica, Guadaloupe.
4	14	30 25	4	Egypt, Delhi, Canary Isles, East Florida, Havannah.
5	14½	36 28	5	Gibraltar, Jerusalem, Ispahan, Nankin, Georgia and Carolinas.
6	15	41 22	6	Lisbon, Madrid, Asia-Minor, Virginia, Maryland, Philadelphia.
7	15½	45 29	7	Rome, Genoa, Constantinople, Caspian Sea, New York, New England.
8	16	49 01	8	Paris, Vienna, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, Canada.
9	16½	52 00	9	London, Flanders, Prague, Dresden, Cracow, Tartary.
10	17	54 27	10	Dublin, Warsaw, Holland, Hanover, Labrador, New South Wales,
11	17½	56 37	11	Edinburgh, Copenhagen, Moscow, capital of Russia.
12	18	58 29	12	South part of Sweden, Tobolski, capital of Siberia.
13	18½	59 58	13	Orkney Isles, Stockholm, capital of Sweden.
14	19	61 18	14	Bergen in Norway, Peterburgh in Russia.
15	19½	62 25	15	Hudson's Straits, North America.
16	20	63 22	16	South part of West Greenland, Siberia.
17	20½	64 06	17	Drontheim in Norway.
18	21	64 49	18	Part of Finland in Russia.
19	21½	65 21	19	Archangel on the White-Sea, Russia.
20	22	65 47	20	Hecla in Iceland.
21	22½	66 06	21	Northern Parts of Russia and Siberia.
22	23	66 20	22	New North Wales in North America.
23	23½	66 28	23	Davis's Straits in ditto.
24	24	66 31	24	Samoieda.
25	month	67 21	25	South Part of Lapland.
26	2 do.	69 48	26	West Greenland.
27	3 do.	73 37	27	Zembla Australis.
28	4 do.	78 30	28	Zembla Borealis.
29	5 do.	84 05	29	Spitsbergen, or East Greenland.
30	6 do.	90 00	30	Unknown.

Latitude.] The *latitude* of a place is its distance from the equator, reckoned in degrees, &c. north or south, on the meridian. The greatest latitude is that of the poles, which are ninety degrees distant from the equator. If the place be situated between the equator and the north pole, it is said to be in north latitude; if it lie between the equator and the south pole, it is in south latitude.

The elevation of the pole above the horizon, is always equal to the latitude of the place; for to a person situated on the equator, both poles will rest in the horizon. If you travel one, two, or more degrees north, the north pole will rise one, two, or more degrees, and will keep pace with your distance from the equator.

Longitude.] Every place on the surface of the earth has its meridian. The *longitude* of a place is the distance of its meridian from some other fixed meridian, measured on the equator. Longitude is either east or west. All places east of the fixed or first meridian, are in east longitude; all west, in west longitude. On the equator, a degree of longitude is equal to sixty geographical miles; and of course, a minute on the equator is equal to a mile. But as all the meridians cut the equator at right angles, and approach nearer and nearer to each other, until at last they cross at the poles, it is

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obvious that the degrees of longitude will lessen as you go from the equator to either pole ; so that in the sixtieth degree of latitude, a degree of longitude is but thirty miles, or half as long as a degree on the equator ; as is evident from the following table :

A T A B L E,

Shewing the number of miles contained in a degree of longitude in each parallel of latitude from the equator.

Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.	Degrees of latitude.	Miles.	60th parts of a mile.
1	59	56	19	56	44	37	47	56	55	34	24	73	17	32
2	59	54	20	56	24	38	47	16	56	33	32	74	16	32
3	59	52	21	56	00	39	46	36	57	32	40	75	15	32
4	59	50	22	55	36	40	46	00	58	31	48	76	14	32
5	59	46	23	55	12	41	45	16	59	30	50	77	13	32
6	59	40	24	54	48	42	44	36	60	30	00	78	12	32
7	59	37	25	54	24	43	43	52	61	29	04	79	11	28
8	59	24	26	54	00	44	43	8	62	28	08	80	10	24
9	59	10	27	53	28	45	42	24	63	27	12	81	09	20
10	59	00	28	53	00	46	41	40	64	26	16	82	08	20
11	58	52	29	52	28	47	41	00	65	25	20	83	07	20
12	58	40	30	51	56	48	40	8	66	24	24	84	06	12
13	58	28	31	51	24	49	39	20	67	23	28	85	05	12
14	58	12	32	50	52	50	38	22	68	22	32	86	04	12
15	58	00	33	50	20	51	37	44	69	21	32	87	03	12
16	57	40	34	49	44	52	37	00	70	20	32	88	02	04
17	57	20	35	49	8	53	36	08	71	19	32	89	01	04
18	57	4	36	48	32	54	35	26	72	18	32	90	00	00

METHODS of finding the LATITUDES and LONGITUDES of PLACES from
CELESTIAL OBSERVATIONS.

WHAT is meant by latitude and longitude has already been sufficiently explained, it remains that we shew the methods used for finding both by celestial observations.

I. Of finding the Latitude.

As the latitude of a place is an arch of the meridian intercepted between the zenith and the equinoctial, which is always equal to the height of the visible pole above the horizon, it follows that if the meridional altitude, or its complement, the zenith distance, of any celestial object, whose place in the heavens is known, can be found, the latitude is easily discovered. Thus, if the heavenly object be in the equinoctial, the zenith distance will be equal to the latitude, which will be either north or south, according as the observer is situated either to the northward or southward of the object. But if the sun or star hath either north or south declination, that is, if its apparent diurnal motion be either to the northward or southward of the equinoctial, the declination must either be subtracted from, or added to, the zenith distance, according as the zenith distance and declination are of the same or different denominations.

1. If

1. If the zenith distance and declination have the same name, their difference will give the latitude. And if the declination is greater than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of the same name with the declination; but if the declination be less than the zenith distance, the latitude will be of a contrary name. If they are equal, the latitude will be 00 degrees, 00 minutes; that is, the place is situated under the equinoctial.

2. If the declination and zenith distance are of contrary names, that is, one north and the other south, their sum will be the latitude, and always of the same name with the declination.

In most books of astronomy and navigation are tables of the declination of the sun, and principal fixed stars; and the meridian altitude of the sun or stars may be easily found by a great variety of instruments.

3. When the object appears in the zenith, the latitude is equal to the declination, and also of the same name.

There are several other methods for finding the latitude, but the above will be sufficient in this place, especially as it is generally used.

II. *Of finding the Longitude.*

It has been already observed, that the difference of longitude between any two places might be determined, by knowing the difference between the times that any remarkable appearance in the heavens was seen in those places. For since the sun and fixed stars appear to move round the earth, or, which is the same thing, the earth revolves about its axis in twenty-four hours; it follows, that in every hour there passes over the meridian one twenty-fourth part of 360 degrees, or of the whole circumference of the equator, equal to fifteen degrees, and a proportionable part in a greater or less time.

The heavenly bodies afford frequent opportunities for making observations of this kind. For as these appearances consist in the appulses, that is, the approaches of the heavenly bodies to one another, or their passing by one another; and these appulses, when they happen, are seen at the same instant of absolute time in all parts of the earth where they are visible: therefore, by knowing the relative times of the day when such appearances are seen in two distant places, the difference between those times is known, and consequently the difference of longitude between those places.

Several Ephemerides or Almanacks are annually published, in which the times when the eclipses of the sun, moon, and Jupiter's satellites; the rising, setting, and southing of the planets; the appulsus of the moon to certain fixed stars, and other celestial appearances, are determined with regard to some meridian. By the help of one of these books, and a careful observation of these appearances, the longitude may be determined.

Eclipses of the moon, when they happen, afford one method of finding the difference of longitude. For as these eclipses are occasioned by an interposition of the earth between her and the sun, and consequently she is immersed in the earth's shadow, the moment any part of her body is deprived of the solar rays, it is visible to all those people who can see her, at the same instant of absolute time. Hence by observing the beginning, middle, or end of an eclipse of the moon, in any part of the world, noting the apparent time of these phenomena, and comparing it with the calculations of the same eclipse, adapted to some other meridian, the difference of time, and consequently the difference of longitude between those two places, will be known.

Suppose

Suppose, for instance, the beginning of an eclipse of the moon happened at London sixteen minutes after two in the morning, but not till fifty-seven minutes and forty seconds after six in the morning at Boston in New England; then will the difference of time be four hours, forty-one minutes, forty seconds, equal to seventy degrees twenty-five minutes, the difference of longitude; and because the eclipse happened later at Boston than at London, the difference of longitude will be west. Consequently, if the longitude be reckoned from the meridian of London, the longitude of Boston will be seventy degrees twenty-five minutes west.

The longitude of places may also be obtained from the observations of solar eclipses, but these being incumbered with the consideration of parallaxes, are much less adapted to that purpose than those of the moon.

But as the eclipses of sun and moon happen but seldom, another expedient offers, viz. the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. That planet has four moons or satellites, moving round him at different distances, and in different intervals of time; one or more of which is eclipsed almost every night: for they disappear either in going behind Jupiter, or passing before him; and the instant of such immersions or emersions may be seen by a refracting telescope of about eight or nine feet long, or a reflecting one of nine inches focal length.

The passage of the moon, or the superior planets, over the meridian, affords another method of discovering the longitude: for by having the time in an ephemeris, when the moon or any of the planets pass the meridian of some place, and finding by observation the time when the object passes the meridian of another place, the longitude will be determined; for the difference of time converted into degrees, &c. will give the difference of longitude.

There is still another method, equally expeditious and certain, namely, the appulses of the moon to certain fixed stars, and their occultations by the interposition of her body. For the moon finishing her revolution in the space of twenty-seven days, seven hours, forty-three minutes, there are but few clear nights, when the moon does not pass over, or so near some fixed star, that the time of the nearest approach, or the visible conjunction, may be easily observed. And these, when compared with the visible time computed to the meridian of some place, will shew the difference of longitude.

The last method we shall mention for finding the longitude, is by a time-keeper, a kind of clock or watch, which will always shew the true time under the meridian of some particular place: for by finding the time of the day at any other place, and comparing them with the time then shewn by such a machine, the difference of longitude between those places will be determined. The ingenious Mr. Harrison, a few years since, completed such a time-keeper, which was found upon trial to answer even beyond the most sanguine expectations; and he accordingly received ten thousand pounds from the government, as a reward for his discovery: but for some reasons, not generally known, the time-keeper has been hitherto kept from the public.

Of the GLOBES, and their Use.

AN artificial Globe is a round body, whose surface is every where equally remote from the center. But by the globes here is meant two spherical bodies, whose convex surfaces are supposed to give a true representation of the earth and heavens, as visible by observation. One of these is called the terrestrial, the other the celestial globe. On the convex surface of the terrestrial globe, all the parts of the earth and sea are delineated in their relative size, form, and situation.

On the surface of the celestial globe, the images of the several constellations, and the unformed stars, are delineated; and the relative magnitude and position which the stars are observed to have in the heavens, carefully preserved.

In order to render these globular bodies more useful, they are fitted up with certain appurtenances, whereby a great variety of useful problems are solved in a very easy and expeditious manner.

The brazen meridian is that ring or hoop in which the globe hangs on its axis, which is represented by two wires passing through its poles. The circle is divided into four quarters of 90 degrees each; in one semi-circle the divisions begin at each pole, and end at 90 degrees, where they meet. In the other semi-circle, the divisions begin at the middle, and proceed thence towards each pole, where they end at 90 degrees. The graduated side of this brazen circle serves as a meridian for any point on the surface of the earth, the globe being turned about till that point comes under the circle.

The hour circle is a small circle of brass, divided into twenty-four hours, the quarters and half quarters. It is fixed on the brazen meridian, equally distant from the north end of the axis; to which is fixed an index, that points out the divisions of the hour-circle as the globe is turned round its axis.

The horizon is represented by the upper surface of the wooden circular frame, encompassing the globe about its middle. On this wooden frame is a kind of perpetual calendar, contained in several concentric circles, the inner one is divided into four quarters of ninety degrees each. The next circle is divided into the twelve months, with the days in each according to the new stile, the next contains the twelve equal signs of the zodiac, each being divided into thirty degrees; the next the twelve months and days according to the old stile; and there is another circle containing the thirty-two points of the compass, with their halves and quarters. Although these circles are on all horizons, yet they are not always placed in the same disposition.

The quadrant of altitude is a thin slip of brass, one edge of which is graduated into ninety degrees and their quarters, equal to those of the meridian. To one end of this is fixed a brass nut and screw, whereby it is put on, and fastened to the meridian; if it be fixed in the zenith or pole of the horizon, then the graduated edge represents a vertical circle passing through any point.

Besides these, there are several circles described on the surfaces of both globes, such as the equinoctial, or ecliptic, circles of longitude and right ascension, the tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude and declination on the celestial globe; and on the terrestrial, the equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, parallels of latitude, hour-circles, or meridians to every fifteen degrees; and on some globes, the spiral rhumbs flowing from the several centers, called flies.

In using the Globes, keep the east side of the horizon towards you (unless the problem requires the turning it) which side you may know by the word *East*, on the horizon; for then you have the graduated meridian towards you, the quadrant of altitude before you, and the globe divided exactly into two equal parts, by the graduated side of the meridian.

The following problems, as being most useful and entertaining, are selected from a great variety of others, which are easily solved with a globe fitted up with the aforementioned appurtenances.

I. *The latitude of a place being given, to rectify the globe for that place.*

Let it be required to rectify the globe for the latitude of Boston, 42 degrees 25 minutes North.

Elevate

Elevate the north pole, till the horizon cuts the brazen meridian in $42^{\circ} 25'$ and the globe is then rectified for the latitude of Boston. Bring Boston to the meridian, and you will find it in the zenith, or directly on the top of the globe. And so of any other place.

II. *To find the latitude and longitude of any place on the terrestrial globe.*

Bring the given place under that side of the graduated brazen meridian where the degrees begin at the equator, then the degree of the meridian over it shews the latitude; and the degree of the equator, under the meridian, shews the longitude.

Thus Boston will be found to lie in $42^{\circ} 25'$, north latitude, and $70^{\circ} 37'$ west longitude, from Greenwich, or $4^{\circ} 43'$, east longitude from Philadelphia.

III. *To find any place on the globe whose latitude and longitude are given.*

Bring the given longitude, found on the equator, to the meridian, and under the given latitude, found on the meridian, is the place sought.

IV. *To find the distance and bearing of any two given places on the globe.*

Lay the graduated edge of the quadrant of altitude over both places, the beginning or 0 degree being on one of them, and the degrees between them shew their distance; these degrees multiplied by 60, give the geographical miles, and, by sixty-nine and a half, give the distance in English miles nearly. Observe, while the quadrant lies in this position, what rhumb of the nearest fly runs mostly parallel to the edge of the quadrant, and that rhumb shews nearly the bearing required.

V. *To find the sun's place in the ecliptic.*

Look the day of the month in the outer calendar upon the horizon, (if the globe was made before the alteration of the stile) and opposite to it, you will find the sign and degree the sun is in that day.—Thus on the 25th of March, the sun's place is $4\frac{1}{2}$ degrees in *Aries*.—Then look for that sign and degree in the *ecliptic line* marked on the globe, and you find the sun's place; there fix on a small black patch, so is it prepared for the solution of the following problems.

Note. The earth's place is always in the sign and degree opposite to the sun; thus, when the sun is $4\frac{1}{2}$ degrees in *Aries*, the earth is $4\frac{1}{2}$ degrees in *Libra*; and so of any other.

VI. *To find the sun's declination, that is, his distance from the equinoctial line, either northward or southward.*

Bring his place to the meridian; observe what degree of the meridian lies over it, and that is his declination. If the sun lies on the *north side* the line, he is said to have *north declination*; but if on the *south side*, he has *south declination*.

Thus on the 20th of April the sun has $11\frac{1}{2}$ degrees north declination, but on the 26th of October he has $12\frac{1}{2}$ south declination.

Note. The greatest declination can never be more than $23\frac{1}{2}$ degrees either north or south; that being the distance of the tropics from the equinoctial, beyond which the sun never goes.

VII. *To find where the sun is vertical on any day; that is, to find over whose heads the sun will pass that day.*

Bring the sun's place to the meridian, observe his declination, or hold a pen or wire over it, then turn the globe round, and all those countries which pass under the wire over

will have the sun over their heads that day at noon. Thus, on the 16th day of April, the inhabitants of the north part of Terra Firma, Porto Bello, Philippine Isles, southern parts of India, Abyssinia, Ethiopia, and Guinea, have the sun over their heads that day at twelve o'clock.

Note. This appearance can only happen to those who live under the *torrid zone*, because the sun never strays farther from the equinoctial, either northward or southward, than the two tropics, from whence he returns again.

VIII. *To find over whose heads the sun is at any hour, or to what place the sun is vertical.*

Bring the place where you are (suppose at Boston) to the meridian; set the index to the given hour by your watch; then turn the globe till the index points to the upper 12, or *noon*, look under the degree of declination for that day, and you find the place to which the sun is vertical, or over whose head it is at that time.

Thus on the first day of May, at half past eight o'clock, A.M. I find the sun is then vertical at Cape Verd, the western point of Africa.

Note. If it be morning, the globe must be turned from east to west. If in the afternoon, it must be turned from west to east.

IX. *To find, at any hour of the day, what o'clock it is at any place in the world.*

Bring the place where you are to the brass meridian; set the index to the hour by the watch, turn the globe till the place you are looking for comes under the meridian, and the index will point out the time required.

Thus when it is 10 o'clock in the morning, at Boston, it is 20 minutes past 12 at Olinda, in Brasil, and 8 at Mexico, in New Spain; the former being 35 degrees W. Long. and the latter 100 degrees W. Long.

Note. By this problem you may likewise see, at one view, in distant countries, where the inhabitants are *rising*—where *breakfasting*—*dining*—*drinking tea*—where going to *assemblies*—and where to *bed*.

X. *To find at what hour the sun rises and sets any day in the year; and also upon what point of the compass.*

Rectify the globe for the latitude of the place you are in; bring the sun's place to the meridian, and set the index to 12; then turn the sun's place to the eastern edge of the horizon, and the index will point out the hour of rising; if you bring it to the western edge of the horizon, the index will shew the hour of setting.

Thus on the 10th day of April, the sun rose at half an hour after 5 o'clock, and set half an hour before seven.

Note. In summer the sun rises and sets a little to the *northward* of the east and west points; and in winter a little to the *southward* of them. If, therefore, when the sun's place is brought to the eastern and western edge of the horizon, you look on the inner circle, directly against the little patch, you will see the point of the compass upon which the sun rises and sets that day.

XI. *To find the length of the day and night at any time of the year.*

Double the time of the sun's rising that day, and it gives the length of the night; double the time of his setting, and it gives the length of the day.

This problem shews how long the sun stays with us any day, and how long he is absent from us any night.

Thus on the 3d day of May, the sun rises at 5 o'clock, and sets at seven; therefore the days are 14 hours long and the nights 10.

XII. *To find the length of the longest or shortest day at any place upon the earth.*

Rectify the globe for that place; if its latitude be north, bring the beginning of Cancer to the meridian; set the index to 12, then bring the same degree of Cancer to the east part of the horizon, and the index will shew the time of the sun's rising.

If the same degree be brought to the western side, the index will shew the time of his setting, which doubled (as in the last problem) will give the length of the longest day and shortest night.

If we bring the beginning of Capricorn to the meridian, and proceed in all respects as before, we shall have the length of the longest night and shortest day.

Thus in the Great Mogul's dominions, the longest day is 14 hours; and the shortest night 10 hours. The shortest day is 10 hours, and the longest night 14 hours.

At Petersburg, the seat of the Empress of Russia, the longest day is about $19\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and the shortest night $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours. The shortest day $4\frac{1}{2}$ hours, and the longest night $19\frac{1}{2}$ hours.

Note. - In all places near the *equator*, the sun rises and sets at 6 o'clock the year round. From thence to the *polar circles*, the days increase as the latitude increases; so that at those circles themselves, the longest day is 24 hours, and the longest night just the same. From the *polar circles* to the *poles*, the days continue to lengthen into weeks and months; so that at the very pole the sun shines for 6 months together in *summer*, and is absent from it 6 months in *winter*.—*Note* also; That when it is *summer* with the *northern* inhabitants, it is *winter* with the *southern*, and the contrary; and every part of the world partakes of an equal share of light and darkness.

XIII. *To find all those inhabitants to whom the sun is this moment rising or setting in their meridians or midnight.*

Find the sun's place in the ecliptic, and raise the pole as much above the horizon as the sun, that day, declines from the equator; then bring the place where the sun is vertical at that hour, to the brass meridian; so will it then be in the *zenith* or center of the horizon. Now see what countries lie on the western edge of the horizon; for in them the sun is *rising*;—to those on the eastern side he is *setting*;—to those under the upper part of the meridian it is *noon day*;—and to those under the lower part of it, it is *midnight*.

Thus at Charlestown (Mass.) on the 10th of April, at 4 o'clock in the morning:

The sun is about rising at	-	Brasil, S. America.
The sun is setting at	-	New Guinea, the Japan Isles and Kamtschatka.
In the meridian, or noon, at	-	Persia, Austria, and Nova Zembla.
Midnight at		{ The Bay of Good Hope, in the vicinity of King George's Sound.

XIV. *To find the beginning and end of twilight.*

The *twilight* is that faint light, which opens the morning by little and little in the *east*, before the sun rises; and gradually shuts in the evening in the *west*, after the sun is set. It arises from the sun's illuminating the upper part of the atmosphere, and begins always when he approaches within 18 degrees of the eastern horizon, and ends when he descends 18 degrees below the western; when dark night commences, and continues till another day dawn.

To find the *beginning of twilight*; rectify the globe; bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the meridian, and set the index to 12 at noon. Turn the degree of the ecliptic, which is opposite to the sun's place till it is elevated 18 degrees in the quadrant of altitude above the horizon on the west, so will the index point the hour twilight begins.

To find when it ends—bring the same degree of the ecliptic to 18 degrees of the quadrant on the east side, and the index will point the time twilight ends.

Thus on the 10th of April, at Boston, twilight begins at 41 minutes after 3 in the morning, and ends 19 minutes after 8 in the evening. In London they have no total night, but a constant twilight, while the sun is beneath the horizon for two months, from the 20th of May to the 20th of July.

Under the north pole, the twilight ceases when the sun's declination is greater than 18 degrees south, which is from the 13th of November to the 29th of January; so that notwithstanding the sun is absent from that part of the world for half a year together, yet total darkness does not continue above 11 weeks; and besides, the moon is above the horizon, at the poles, for a whole fortnight of every month through the year.

Note. The less the sun's meridian altitude, the longer twilight continues; therefore, at the equator, twilight is the shortest.

XV. *To measure the distance from one town to another.*

Only take their distance with a pair of dividers, and apply it to the equinoctial, that will give the number of degrees between them, which being multiplied by 60, (the number of geographical or computed miles in one degree) gives the exact distance sought:—Or, extend the quadrant of altitude from one place to another; that will shew the number of degrees in like manner, which may be reduced to miles as before.

Thus, the distance from London to Madrid is $11\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. From Paris to Constantinople $19\frac{1}{2}$ degrees. From Bristol, in England, to Boston, is 45 degrees, which multiplied by $69\frac{1}{2}$, (the number of English miles in a degree) gives $3127\frac{1}{2}$ miles.

Note. No place can be further from another than 180 degrees—that being half the circumference of the globe, and consequently the greatest distance.

XVI. *To find all those countries in which an eclipse of the sun or moon will be visible.*

1. *Of the Sun*: Find the place to which the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, by problem 7th, and bring it to the *zenith*, or top of the globe; then, to all those places above the horizon, if the *eclipse* be large, will the sun appear (part of it) visibly obscured.

2. *Of the Moon*: Bring the antipodes, or country opposite the place where the sun is vertical at the time of the eclipse, to the zenith or top of the globe, and then the eclipse will be seen in all places above the horizon at that time.

XVII. *To calculate the circumference of the earth, that is, to find how many miles it is round.*

A line going round our globe is supposed by mathematicians to be divided into 360 equal parts, called degrees; and each of these parts are supposed to be divided into 60 equal parts, called minutes. Mr. Norwood found, by accurately measuring from London to York in 1635, that one degree upon the earth's surface contained $69\frac{1}{2}$ statute miles nearly; consequently if the whole 360 degrees be multiplied by $69\frac{1}{2}$ we shall find the circuit of the whole earth, in measured miles, to be 25,020. The accurate measure is 25,038.

Note. 60 computed miles make a degree, which makes the circumference to be but 21,600 geographical miles.

XVIII. *To calculate the diameter of the earth, i. e. to find how many miles it is through.*

It has been found by accurate mensuration, that if a circle measures 22 round, its diameter will be 7; i. e. the diameter is always a little less than *one third* part of the circumference; and this always holds true, be the circle bigger or less.*

Therefore if we multiply the circumference of the earth by 7, and divide the product by 22, the quotient will give the diameter, or thickness; and which, in this case, will be found to be 8018 measured, 6872 computed, miles. The diameter of the earth is commonly reckoned at 7,970 measured miles.

Note. From these dimensions of the earth we may discover, 1st, that if there were a hole made through it, and a mill-stone let fall into this hole, and it should descend at the rate of 1 mile a minute, it would be more than $3\frac{1}{4}$ days in coming to the center.

2d. If a man be desirous of travelling round the earth, and should go 20 miles each day, he would be 3 years and $\frac{1}{2}$ in completing the journey.

3d. If a bird should fly round the earth in 2 days, she must go at the rate of 525 (measured) miles an hour.

XIX. *To find the superficial content of the earth.*

Multiply the circumference by the diameter.

XX. *To find the solid content of the earth.*

Multiply the surface by *one sixth* of the diameter and it will give the solidity. Or, multiply the cube of the diameter by 11, and the product divided by 21, will give the solidity.

After the same manner we may find the surface and solidity not only of the natural globe, but also of the whole body of the atmosphere surrounding it, (provided it be always and every where of the same height) for having found the perpendicular height thereof by that common experiment of the ascent of Mercury at the foot and top of a mountain, double the said height and add the same diameter of the earth; then multiply the whole as a new diameter, by its proper circumference, and from the product subtract the solidity of the earth, it will leave that of the atmosphere.

PROBLEMS solved on the CELESTIAL GLOBE.

The equator, ecliptic, tropics, polar circles, horizon and brazen meridians, are exactly alike on both globes. Both also are rectified in the same manner. N. B. The sun's place for any day of the year, stands directly over that day on the horizon of the celestial globe, as it does on that day of the terrestrial.

The *latitude* and *longitude* of the stars, or of all other celestial phenomena, are reckoned in a very different manner from the latitude and longitude of places on the earth; for all terrestrial latitudes are reckoned from the equator; and longitudes from the meridian of some remarkable place, as, of London by the British, and of Paris by the French. But the astronomers of all nations agree in reckoning the latitudes of the moon, stars, planets, and comets, from the ecliptic; and their longitudes from the equinoctial colure, in that semicircle of it which cuts the ecliptic at the beginning of Aries; and thence eastward, quite round the same semi-circle again. Consequently those stars

**Note.* The circumference of a circle is to its diameter more exactly as 355 to 113.

which

which lie between the equinoctial and the northern half of the ecliptic, have north declination and south latitude: those which lie between the equinoctial and the southern half of the ecliptic, have south declination and north latitude; and all those which lie between the tropics and poles, have their declinations and latitudes of the same denomination.

PROB. I. To find the right ascension and declination of the sun, or any fixed star; bring the sun's place in the ecliptic to the brazen meridian; then that degree in the equinoctial which is cut by the meridian, is the sun's *right ascension*; and that degree of the meridian which is over the sun's place, is his *declination*. Bring any fixed star to the meridian, and its right ascension will be cut by the meridian in the equinoctial; and the degree of the meridian that stands over it is its declination. So that the right ascension and declination on the celestial globe are found in the same manner as longitude and latitude on the terrestrial.

II. To find the latitude and longitude of any star. If the given star be on the north side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant of altitude on the north pole of the ecliptic, where the twelve semicircles meet, which divide the ecliptic into the twelve signs; but if the star be on the south side of the ecliptic, place the 90th degree of the quadrant on the south pole of the ecliptic: Keeping the 90th degree of the quadrant on the proper pole, turn the quadrant about, until its graduated edge cuts the star; then the number of degrees in the quadrant, between the ecliptic and the star, is its latitude; and the degrees of the ecliptic, cut by the quadrant, is the star's longitude, reckoned according to the sign in which the quadrant then is.

III. To present the face of a starry firmament, as seen from any given place of the earth, at any hour of the night.—Rectify the celestial globe for the given latitude, the zenith, and sun's place, in every respect, as taught by the problem for the terrestrial; and turn it about, until the index points to the given hour; then the upper hemisphere of the globe will represent the visible half of the heaven for that time; all the stars upon the globe being then in such situations, as exactly correspond to those in the heaven. And if the globe be placed duly north and south, by means of a small sea compass, every star in the globe will point to the like star in the heaven: by which means, the constellations and remarkable stars may be easily known. All those stars which are in the eastern side of the horizon, are then rising in the eastern side of the heaven; all in the western, are setting in the western side; and all those under the upper part of the brazen meridian, between the south point of the horizon and the north pole, are at their greatest altitude, if the latitude of the place be north; but if the latitude be south, those stars which lie under the upper part of the meridian, between the north point of the horizon and the south pole, are at their greatest altitude.

IV. The latitude of the place and day of the month being given to find the time when any known star will rise, or be upon the meridian, or set.

Having rectified the globe, turn it about until the given star comes to the eastern side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's rising; then turn the globe westward, and when the star comes to the brazen meridian, the index will show the time of the star's coming to the meridian of your place; lastly, turn on, until the star comes to the western side of the horizon, and the index will show the time of the star's setting. N. B. In northern latitudes those stars which are less distant from the north pole than the quantity of its elevation above the north point of the horizon, never set; and those which are less distant from the south pole than the number degrees by which

which it is depressed below the horizon, never rise: And *vice versa* in southern latitudes.

V. To find at what time of the year a given star will be upon the meridian, at a given hour of the night. Bring the given star to the upper semicircle of the brass meridian, and set the index to the given hour; then turn the globe, until the index points to XII at noon, and the upper semicircle of the meridian will then cut the sun's place, answerable to the day of the year sought; which day may be easily found against the like place of the sun among the signs on the wooden horizon.

The different MANNER by which some NATIONS and PEOPLE reckon TIME.

THE *Babylonians, Persians, and Syrians*, and the inhabitants of some part of *Germany*, begin their days at *sun-rising*.

The (ancient) *Jews, Athenians, and Italians*, reckon from *sun setting*.

The *Egyptians*, like the *English*, &c. begin at *midnight*.

The *astronomers and seamen*, begin the day at noon, and reckon on 24 hours to the next day at noon. And according to this mode of reckoning are all the calculations of the *sun, moon, and planets*, made and inserted in the common almanacks.

GEOGRAPHICAL THEOREMS, or PROPOSITIONS.

THESE propositions, which are deducible from the nature of the foregoing work, the learner will find to be so many *real truths*, if he properly applies and contemplates them upon the globe.

I. Places lying under the equator have no latitude; because the reckoning of latitude begins at the equator.

II. Under the *poles* of the world the latitude is greatest, or just 90 degrees; because the reckoning of latitude ends at the poles.

III. Going from the *equator* towards the *poles*, the latitude increases; but going towards the *equator*, the latitude diminishes.

IV. The *latitude* of any place is equal to the height of the pole in degrees above the horizon.

V. Places lying under that meridian, which is accounted the *first*, have *no longitude*, because the reckoning of longitude begins at that meridian.

VI. Those places have the greatest longitude which lie under the meridian, opposite to that where longitude begins.

VII. The longitude of any place cannot be greater than 180 degrees, eastward or westward; because that brings you to the meridian opposite to that where longitude began to be counted from.

VIII. No two places can be distant from one another above 180 degrees; because 180 degrees is half the circumference of a great circle on the globe.

IX. All the inhabitants of the earth enjoy the *sun's light* an equal length of time, and have him equally absent from them.

X. Under the *equinoctial*, the days and nights are always equal to twelve hours; but not exactly so in any other place.

XI. In all places between the equator and the poles, the days and nights are never equal but at the time of the *equinoxes*, in March and September.

XII. The difference between the lengths of the days and nights in any place on either *side* the *equator*, is greater in proportion as the latitude of that place is greater.

XIII. In places exactly under the *polar circles*, the sun appears, when at the *summer tropic*, one whole day without setting; and disappears one whole day when in the *winter tropic*: At other times it daily rises and sets as elsewhere.

XIV. In all places of the *frigid zones*, the sun appears every year without setting for a certain number of days; and disappears for about the same space of time. And the nearer to, or further from the pole, those places are, the longer or shorter is his appearance in, or absence from them.

XV. To all places under the same semicircle of the meridian, whether on the north or south side of the equator, it is *noon* or *midnight*, or any other hour of the day or night at the same time precisely.

XVI. Places lying eastward of any other place, have their *morning*, *noon*, and *evening* hours earlier than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies eastward of it.

XVII. Places lying westward of any other place have their *morning*, *noon*, and *evening* hours later than at that place, by one hour for every 15 degrees it lies westward of it.

XVIII. A person in going *eastward* quite round the globe, will have gained one day in his reckoning of time, above the account kept at the place he departed from: But had his circuit been made *westward*, he would have been one day behind the account kept at that place.

XIX. Two persons setting out at the same time from a place to make the circuit of the globe, one going *eastward* the other *westward*, will on their return, differ in their account of time by two entire days.

XX. To all places within the *torrid zone*, the sun is *vertical*, i. e. comes over the heads of the inhabitants, *twice* a year. To those under the *tropics*, once: But it is never vertical to those in the *temperate* or *frigid zones*.

XXI. People who live to the *north* of the *torrid zone*, see the sun due *south* at noon; and those who live to the *south* of the *torrid zone*, see the sun due *north* at noon.

XXII. Those who see the sun to the *northward* have their shadows projected *southward*; but when they see the sun to the *southward*, their shadows are projected *northward*.

XXIII. The nearer the sun is to the *zenith* of any person, the shorter is the shadow at noon; but the further from the *zenith* at noon, the longer is the shadow: The shadow is always opposite to the sun; and those who have the sun in their zenith, i. e. directly over their heads, have no [length of] shadow at all.

XXIV. In all places situated in a *parallel sphere*, i. e. at or very near the *poles*, the sun's daily motion runs always *parallel*, or nearly so, to the respective horizon of such place.

XXV. In all places situated in a *right sphere*, i. e. at or near the equator, the sun's daily motion is *perpendicular*, or nearly so, to the horizon of such places.

XXVI. In all places situated in an *oblique sphere*, i. e. lying between the equator and the poles, the circle of the sun's daily motion is always oblique unto, or cuts the horizon of such place at unequal angles.

XXVII. On the days of the *equinoxes* only, that is, about the 20th of March, and 23d of September, the sun rises exactly in the *east* point of the horizon, and sets in the *west* point, to every place upon earth.

XXVIII. To places in *north latitude*, the sun rises to the *northward* of the *east*, and sets to the *northward* of the *west*, from the *vernal* to the *autumnal* equinox; and rises to the

the *southward* of the *east*, and sets to the *southward* of the *west*, from the time of the *autumnal equinox* to that of the *vernal*.

Lastly. In all places of the torrid zone, the morning and evening twilight is least; in the two frigid zones it is greatest; and in the temperate zones the twilight is a medium between the other two.

Of MAPS and their Use.

A MAP is the representation of some part of the earth's surface delineated on a plane according to the laws of projection; for as the earth is of a globular form, no part of its spherical surface can be accurately exhibited on a plane.

Maps are either general or particular: General maps are such as give us a view of an entire hemisphere or half of the globe, and are projected upon the plane of some great circle, which terminates the projected hemisphere, and divides it from the other half of the globe, as the meridian, equator, or the horizon of some place; and from this circle the projection is said to be meridional, equatorial, or horizontal.

Particular maps are such as exhibit a part less than a hemisphere; such as maps of Europe, Asia, Africa, North America, and South America; or of particular kingdoms, provinces, countries, or lesser districts.

There are two methods of projecting the circles in general maps, viz. stereographic, and orthographic. In order to form an adequate idea of the construction of maps, we may imagine the globe on which the circles are delineated, to be of thin glass, and that half of it is viewed at the same time. In taking this view, the eye may be conceived to be placed at different distances from the hemisphere to be projected. If the eye be conceived to be placed in some point of the surface of the sphere to view the concave of the opposite hemisphere, it is called the stereographic projection: If the eye be supposed to be placed at an infinite distance, it is called the orthographic projection.

In the stereographic projection the parts about the middle are contracted, being much less than those nearer the circumference.

All the maps in this treatise, and indeed those in almost all others, are laid down according to the laws of stereographic projection.

Maps differ from the globe in the same manner as a picture does from a statue. The globe truly represents the earth, but a map no more than a plane surface can represent one that is spherical. But although the earth can never be exhibited exactly by one map, yet by means of several of them, each containing about ten or twenty degrees of latitude, the representation will not fall very much short of the globe for exactness; because such maps, if joined together, would form a spherical convex nearly as round as the globe itself.

Cardinal Points.] The north is considered as the upper part of the map; the south is at the bottom, opposite to the north; the east is on the right hand, the face being turned to the north; and the west on the left hand, opposite to the east. From the top to the bottom are drawn meridians, or *lines of longitude*; and from side to side, *parallels of latitude*. The outermost of the meridians and parallels are marked with degrees of latitude or longitude, by means of which, and the scale of miles, which is commonly placed in the corner of the map, the situation, distances, &c. of places may be found, as on the artificial globe. Thus to find the distance of two places, suppose Philadelphia and Boston, by the map, we have only to measure the space between them with the compasses, or a bit of thread, and to apply this distance to the scale of miles, which

which shews that Boston is 286 miles distant from Philadelphia. If the places lie directly north or south, east or west, from one another, we have only to observe the degrees on the meridians and parallels, and by turning these into miles, we obtain the distance without measuring. Rivers are described in maps by blank lines, and are wider towards the mouth than towards the head or spring. Mountains are sketched on maps as on a picture. Forests and woods are represented by a kind of shrub; bogs and morasses, by shades; sands and shallows are described by small dots; and roads usually by double lines. Near harbours, the depth of the water is expressed by figures representing fathoms.

When any parts of the heaven, or earth, are said to be on the right or left, we are to understand the expression differently according to the profession of the person who makes use of it; because, according to that, his face is supposed to be turned towards a certain quarter. A geographer is supposed to stand with his face to the north, because the northern part of the world is best known. An astronomer looks towards the south, to observe the celestial bodies as they come to the meridian. The ancient augurs in observing the flight of birds, looked towards the east; while the poets look west, towards the *Fortunate isles*. In books of geography, therefore, by the right hand we must understand the east; in those of astronomy, the west; in such as relate to augury, the south; and in the writings of poets, the north.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS *concerning* HEAT and COLD.*

THAT the presence of the sun is the principal source of heat, as well as of light, and its absence of cold, is too obvious ever to have been doubted.

The next source of heat is the condensation of vapour. It is well known that vapour contains a quantity of the matter of heat which produces no other effect but that of making it assume an aerial expanded state, until the vapour is condensed into a liquid; but during this condensation a quantity of sensible heat is set loose, which warms the surrounding atmosphere. This condensation is frequently caused by the attraction of an electrical cloud, and hence the fulminations we frequently experience before rain.

As the earth is the chief source of heat in the atmosphere that surrounds it, distance from the earth is the source of cold; or, in other words, the greatest cold must prevail in the highest regions of the atmosphere, and so much the greater, as clear unclouded air seems to receive no heat whatsoever from the rays of the sun, whether direct or reflected. Thus if the focus of the most powerful burning-glass be directed on mere air, it does not produce the *smallest* degree of heat; and the reason is, because the air being transparent, affords a free passage to the rays of light, which act as fire only when confined within the minute interstices of bodies; as it is then, and then only, that they contract the attractive power of the particles of matter; in which action and reaction heat consists.

Hence the highest mountains, even under the equator, are, during the whole year, covered with snow. Mr. Bouguer found the cold of Pinchinca, one of the Cordeliers, immediately under the line, to extend from 7 to 9 degrees under the freezing point, every morning before sunrise; and hence at a certain height, which varies in almost every latitude, it constantly freezes at night, in every season, though in the warm climates it thaws to some degree the next day: This height he calls the *lower term of congelation*: Between the tropics he places it at the height of 15,577 feet.

* Extracted from Kirwan's ingenious work, intitled "An estimate of the temperature of different latitudes," lately published.

At still greater heights it never freezes, not because the cold decreases, but because vapours do not ascend so high; this height Mr. Bouguer calls the *upper term of congelation*, and under the equator he fixes it at the height of 28,000 feet, at most. Under the equator, there being very little variety in the weather, the height of both terms is nearly constant; under other latitudes this height is variable, both in summer and winter, according to the degree of heat which prevails on the surface of the earth.

The next general source of cold is, *evaporation*; for the attraction of the particles of liquids decreases as their points of contact diminish, and thereby their capacity for receiving the matter of heat (which is the same as that of light) increases; by this increased capacity, the matter of heat or fire contained in the neighbouring bodies, which, like all other fluids, flows where it finds least resistance, is determined to flow towards the vapour; and consequently those bodies are cooled, though the vapour is not heated; because the re-action of its particles is barely equal to that which it had before its capacity was increased.*.

With respect to evaporation, we may remark, 1st. That in our climates, it is about four times as great from the vernal to the autumnal equinox, as from the autumnal to the vernal.

2dly. The degree of cold produced by evaporation, is much greater when the air is warmer than the evaporating surface, than that which is produced when the evaporating surface is the warmer of the two. Hence, warm winds, as the Sirocco, Harmatan, &c. are more desiccative than cold winds.

3dly. That it is greatly increased by a current of air or wind flowing over the evaporating surface, not only because the evaporating surface is thereby increased, but also because unsaturated air is constantly brought into contact with it. Hence it has been remarked that calm days are the hottest.

4thly. That tracts of land covered with trees or vegetables, emit more vapour than the same space covered with water, as Dr. Hales has observed. Mr. Williams found this quantity to amount to one third more.

Lastly. We may observe, that the heat and cold of different countries are transmitted from one to the other by the medium of winds. How the air of a cold country is determined to flow towards a warmer, is easily understood; but by what means warm air is determined to flow towards cold countries, is somewhat difficult to explain. I shall here mention two causes that occur to me, wishing for a fuller explanation from others.

1st. If from any tract in the upper regions of the atmosphere, two currents of air flow in opposite directions, as sometimes happens, the inferior air being less compressed will become specifically lighter; and currents of air in opposite directions to the upper currents will take place.

2dly. I conceive that when easterly or westerly winds meet with unequal force, one of them may be reflected northwards.

From what has been already said, it follows, that some situations are better fitted to receive or communicate heat than other situations; thus high and mountainous situations being nearer to the source of cold, must be colder than lower situations; and countries covered with woods, as they prevent the access of the sun's rays to the earth, or to the heaps of snow which they may conceal, and present more numerous evaporating surfaces, must be colder than open countries, though situated in the same latitude;

* Heat is observed to diminish in ascending into the atmosphere, nearly in an arithmetical progression.

and since all tracts of land present infinite varieties of situations, uniform results cannot here be expected.

With respect to the annual temperature, we may remark, 1st. That within 10 degrees of the poles the temperatures differ very little; neither do they differ much within 10 degrees of the equator.

2d. The temperatures of different years differ very little near the equator, but they differ more and more, as the latitudes approach the poles.

3d. It scarce ever freezes in latitudes under 35° , unless in very elevated situations, and it scarce ever melts in latitudes higher than 60° .

4th. Between latitudes 35° and 60° , in places adjacent to the sea, it generally thaws when the sun's altitude is 40° , and seldom begins to freeze, until the sun's meridian altitude is below 40° .

Hence we may observe, that the month of January is the coldest in every latitude.

2d. That July is the warmest month in all latitudes above 48° ; but in lower latitudes, August is generally the warmest.

3d. That December and January, and also June and July, differ but little. In latitudes above 30° , the months of August, September, October and November, differ more from each other, than those of February, March, April and May. In latitudes under 30° , the difference is not so great. The temperature of April approaches more, every where, to the annual temperature, than that of any other month; whence we may infer, that the effects of natural causes, that operate gradually over a large extent, do not arrive at their *maximum*, until the activity of the causes begins to diminish; this appears also in the operation of the moon on seas, which produces tides; but after these effects have arrived at their *maximum*, the decrements are more rapid than the increments originally were, during the progress to that *maximum*.

4th. That the differences between the hottest and coldest months, within 20° of the equator, are inconsiderable, except in some peculiar situations; but that they increase in proportion as we recede from the equator.

5th. That in the highest latitudes, we often meet with a heat of 75 or 80 degrees; and particularly in latitudes 59 and 60, the heat of July is frequently greater than in latitude 51° .

6th. That every habitable latitude enjoys a heat of 60 degrees at least, for two months; which heat seems necessary for the growth and maturity of corn. The quickness of vegetation in the higher latitudes, proceeds from the duration of the sun over the horizon. Rain is little wanted, as the earth is sufficiently moistened by the liquefaction of the snow that covers it during the winter; in all this we cannot sufficiently admire the wise disposition of Providence.

7th. It is owing to the same provident hand, that the globe of the earth is intersected with seas and mountains, in a manner, that on its first appearance, seem altogether irregular and fortuitous; presenting to the eye of ignorance, the view of an immense ruin; but when the effects of these seeming irregularities on the face of the globe are carefully inspected, they are found most beneficial and even necessary to the welfare of its inhabitants; for, to say nothing of the advantages of trade and commerce, which could not exist without these seas, it is by their vicinity, that the cold of the higher latitudes is moderated, and the heat of the lower. It is by want of seas that the interior parts of Asia, as Siberia and Great Tartary, as well as those of Africa, are rendered almost uninhabitable; a circumstance which furnishes a strong prejudice against the opinion of those, who think these countries were the original habitations of man. In the same

manner, mountains are necessary; not only as the reservoirs of rivers, but as a defence against the violence of heat, in the warm latitudes: without the Alps, Pyrenees, Apennine, the mountains of Dauphiné and Auvergne, &c. Italy, Spain, and France, would be deprived of the mild temperature they at present enjoy. Without the Balgate hills, or Indian Apennine, India would have been a desert. Hence Jamaica, St. Domingo, Sumatra, and most other intertropical islands, are furnished with mountains, from which the breezes proceed that refresh them.

A view of the ANNUAL TEMPERATURE of different places, according to the order of their LATITUDES.

				N. Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean an- nual heat.
Wadso, in Lapland	-	-	-	70, 5		36°
Abo	-	-	-	60, 27	22, 18 E.	40.
Peterburgh	-	-	-	59, 56	30, 24 E.	38, 8
Upsal	-	-	-	59, 51	17, 47 E.	41, 88
Stockholm	-	-	-	59, 20	18. E.	42, 39
Solykamki	-	-	-	59.	54. E.	36, 2
Edinburgh	-	-	-	55, 57	3. W.	47, 7
Francker	-	-	-	53.	5, 42 E.	52, 6
Berlin	-	-	-	52, 32	13, 31 E.	49.
Lyndon, in Rutland	-	-	-	52, 30	0. 3 W.	48, 3
Leyden	-	-	-	52, 10	4, 32 E.	52, 25
London	-	-	-	51, 31		51, 9
Dunkirk	-	-	-	51, 2	2, 7 E.	54, 9
Manheim	-	-	-	49, 27	9, 2 E.	51, 5
Rouen	-	-	-	49, 26	1. W.	51.
Ratisbon	-	-	-	48, 56	12, 5 E.	49, 35
Paris	-	-	-	48, 50	2, 25 E.	52.
Troyes, in Champagne	-	-	-	48, 18	4, 10 E.	53, 17
Vienna	-	-	-	48, 12	16, 22 E.	51, 53
Dijon	-	-	-	47, 19	4, 57 E.	52, 8
Nantes	-	-	-	47, 13	1, 28 E.	55, 53
Poitiers	-	-	-	46, 39	0, 30 E.	53, 8
Laufanne	-	-	-	46, 31	6, 50 E.	48, 87
Padua	-	-	-	45, 23	12. E.	52, 2
Rhodesz, in Guienne	-	-	-	45, 21	2, 39 E.	52, 9
Bordeaux	-	-	-	44, 50	0, 36 W.	57, 6
Montpelier	-	-	-	43, 36	3, 73 E.	60, 87
Marfeillies	-	-	-	43, 19	5, 27 E.	61, 8
Mont Louis, in Rouffillon	-	-	-	42.	2, 40 E.	44, 5
Cambridge, in New England	-	-	-	42, 25	71. W.	50, 3
Philadelphia	-	-	-	39, 56	75, 9 W.	52, 5
Pekin	-	-	-	39, 54	116, 29 W.	55, 5
Algiers	-	-	-	36, 49	2, 17 E.	72.
Grand Cairo	-	-	-	30.	31, 23 E.	73.
Canton	-	-	-	23.	133. E.	75, 14
Tivoli, in St. Domingo	-	-	-	19.		74.
Spanishtown, in Jamaica	-	-	-	18, 15	76, 38 W.	81.

Manilla

				N. Lat. deg. m.	Longitude. deg. m.	Mean an- nual heat.
Manilla	-	-	-	14, 36	120, 58 E.	78, 4
Fort St. George	-	-	-	13.	87. E.	81, 3
Pondicherry	-	-	-	12.	67. E.	88.
				South Latitude.		
Falkland Islands	-	-	-	51.	66. W.	47, 4
Quito	-	-	-	0, 13	77, 50 W.	62.

THEORY of the WINDS.

AIR is a fine invifible fluid, furrouriding the globe of the earth, and extending to fome miles above its furface: and that collection of it, together with the bodies it contains, circumfcribing the earth, is called the atmofphere.

Few natural bodies have been the fubject of more experiments than the air; and from thefe it appears, that it is both heavy and elastic. By its gravity it is capable of fupporting all lighter bodies, as fmoke, vapours, fumes, odours, &c. And by its elasticity, a fmall volume of air is capable of expanding itfelf in fuch a manner as to fill a very large fpace, and alfo of being compreffed into a much fmallier compafs.—Cold has the property of compreffing air, and heat of expanding it. But as foon as the expansion or compreffion is taken away, it will return to its natural ftate. Hence, if an alteration be made in any part of the atmofphere, either by heat or cold, the neighbouring parts will be put into commotion, by the effort which the air always makes to recover its former ftate. Wind is nothing more than a fream or current of air capable of very different degrees of velocity, and generally blowing from one point of the horizon to its oppofite part. The horizon, like all other great circles of the fphere, is divided into 360 degrees: but as thefe divifions are too minute for common ufe, it is alfo divided into thirty two equal parts, called rhumbs, or points of the compafs.

Winds are either constant or variable, general or particular. Constant winds are fuch as always blow the fame way, at leaft for a confiderable length of time. Variable winds, are fuch as frequently fhift, or change from one point of the compafs to another. A general wind, is that which blows the fame way over a large tract of the earth the greater part of the year. A particular wind is that which blows in any particular place, fometimes one way and fometimes another.

The trade wind is a current of air blowing continually from the eaft, on the Atlantic and Pacific ocean, between thirty degrees north and thirty degrees fouth latitude.

The caufe of this constant wind is the action of the fun in his apparent motion from eaft to weft. For the air immediately under the fun being more heated, and confequently more expanded in that part than in any other, the air to the eaftward is constantly rufhing towards the weft, in order to reftore the equilibrium, or natural ftate of the atmofphere; and by that means occafions a continual current of air from the eaftward within thofe limits.

But the trade-winds near the northern boundary, blow between the north and eaft; and near the fouthern, between the fouth and eaft. For as the air is expanded by the heat of the fun near the equator, therefore the air from the northward and fouthward will both flow towards the equator, to reftore the equilibrium. But thefe motions from the north and fouth being compounded with the foregoing eafterly motion, will produce the motions obferved near the above limits, between the north and eaft, and between the fouth and weft.

It must however be observed, that these general currents of the wind are disturbed on the continents and near the coast. Sometimes the nature of the soil increases or lessens the heat in the atmosphere; and sometimes chains of mountains form a kind of eddy near their western sides; hence the motions of the winds may be different and even contrary to the general motions above observed.

In some parts of the Indian Ocean another species of trade-winds, called *monsoons*, prevail. These blow six months one way, and six months the contrary way.

These phenomena flow from the same cause. For the air that is cool and dense, must force the rarefied air in a continual stream upwards, where it must spread itself to preserve an equilibrium; consequently the upper course or current of the air will be contrary to the under current; for the under current must move from those parts where the greatest heat is; and so by a kind of circulation, the north-east trade-wind below will be attended with a south-west wind above; and a south-east below with a north-west above. Experience has sufficiently confirmed the truth of this proposition; the seamen always finding that as soon as they leave the trade-winds, they immediately find a wind blowing in an opposite direction.

Between the fourth and tenth degrees of north latitude, and between the longitudes of Cape Verd and the easternmost of the Cape de Verd Islands, is a tract of sea which seems to be condemned to perpetual calms, attended with dreadful thunder and lightnings, and such frequent rains, that it has acquired the name of the *Rains*. This phenomenon seems to be caused by the great rarefaction of the air on the neighbouring coast, which causing a perpetual current of air to set in from the westward, and this current meeting here with the general trade-wind, the two currents balance each other, and cause a general calm; while the vapours carried thither by each wind meeting and condensing, occasion these frequent deluges of rain.

T H E O R Y *of the* T I D E S.

BY the word tide is understood that motion of the water in the seas and rivers by which they regularly rise and fall. The phenomena of the tides occasioned a variety of opinions among the ancient philosophers; but the true cause continued unknown till the latter end of the last century, when it was discovered by the illustrious Sir Isaac Newton, who deduced it from the following observations:

One of the inherent properties of matter is gravitation or attraction. It is owing to this property, that heavy bodies thrown up into the air fall down to the surface of the earth in perpendicular directions. And as all lines drawn from the center of a sphere to its circumference are perpendicular to its surface, therefore all heavy bodies fall in lines tending to the center. This property of gravitation or attraction is found to be universally diffused through this solar system, and probably through the whole universe. The heavenly bodies are governed by this great law of nature. The earth and moon gravitate towards, or are attracted by the sun. Experience has also demonstrated, that the force of attraction exerted by these bodies on one another, is less and less, as they are farther removed asunder in proportion to the squares of those distances.

From these general principles it follows, that the gravitation of bodies towards the center of the earth will be less on those parts of its surface that are opposite to the sun and moon than in the others: and this defect of gravitation in particular parts, is the true cause of the ebbing and flowing of the tide. For it is evident, that if no such forces were exerted by the sun and moon, the oceans, being equally attracted towards the earth's center on all sides by the force of gravity, would continue in a state of perfect stagnation. But as these forces are really exerted, the waters in the oceans must rise
higher

higher in those places where the sun and moon diminish their gravity; or where the attraction of the sun and moon is greatest.

This being an undeniable fact, it follows, that as the force of gravity must be diminished most in those places of the earth to which the moon is nearest, viz. in the zenith; therefore the waters in such places will rise higher, and consequently it will be full sea or flood in such places.

From the same principles it follows, that the parts of the earth directly under the moon in the zenith, and those in the nadir, or those diametrically opposite, will have the flood or high-water at the same time.

But as the waters in the zenith and nadir rise at the same time, therefore the waters in their neighbourhood will press towards these places to maintain the equilibrium; and, to supply the places of these, others will move the same way, and so on to places ninety degrees distant from the said zenith and nadir; consequently in those places where the moon appears in the horizon, the waters will have more liberty to descend towards the center; and therefore in those places, the waters will be lowest.

From what has been said it follows, that if the surface of the earth was entirely covered with water, the ocean must have a prolate spheroidal figure, the longer diameter passing through the place where the moon is vertical, and the shorter where she appears in the horizon. And as the moon apparently shifts her place from east to west in moving round the earth every day, the longer diameter of the spheroid following her motion, there must be two floods and two ebbs in the length of a lunar day, or about twenty-four hours, fifty minutes.

Hence we see the reason why the time of high-water is about fifty minutes later every day. That is, if it be high-water at eleven to-day, it will not be high-water till near fifty minutes after eleven to-morrow.

The tides are higher than ordinary twice every month, viz. about the time of the new and full moon; and these are called spring tides: because at these times both the sun and moon concur, or draw in the same right line; and consequently the tides must be more elevated. When the two luminaries are in conjunction, or when the sun and moon are on the same side of the earth, they both conspire to raise the water in the zenith, and consequently in the nadir: and when the sun and moon are in opposition, that is, when the earth is between them, while one makes high-water in the zenith and nadir, the other does the same in the nadir and zenith.

The tides are less than ordinary twice every month; that is, about the times of the first and last quarters of the moon; and these are called neap-tides.

For in the quarters of the moon, the sun raises the water where the moon depresses it; and depresses it where the moon raises the water; the tides are made therefore by the difference of their actions.

It is however necessary to be observed, that the spring-tides happen not precisely at the new and full moon, but a day or two after, when the attractions of the sun and moon have acted in the same direction for a considerable time. In the same manner the neap-tides happen a day or two after the quarters, when the force of the moon's attraction has been lessened by that of the sun's for several days together.

The spring tides are greater about the time of the equinoxes; than at other times of the year; and the neap-tides are then less.

Because the longer diameter of the spheroid, or the two opposite floods, will at that time be in the earth's equator; and consequently will describe a great circle of the earth, by whose diurnal rotation those floods will move swifter, describing a great circle in the same time they used to describe a lesser circle parallel to the equator, and conse-

quently

quently the waters being impelled more forcibly against the shores, they rise higher.

Such would be the phenomena of the tides if the whole surface of the earth was entirely covered with water; but as this is not the case, there being besides the continents, a multitude of islands, lying in the way of the tide, which interrupt its course; therefore in many places near the shores, a great variety of other appearances, besides those already enumerated, arise. These require particular solutions, in which the shores, fireights, shoals, rocks, and other objects, must be considered; a disquisition which requires much more room than can be spared in this introduction. What has been said will however be sufficient to explain the theory of the tides, and enable the reader to pursue the inquiry and solve the difficulties that may arise with regard to any particular place.

LENGTH of MILES in different COUNTRIES.

THERE is scarcely a greater variety in any thing than in this sort of measure; not only those of separate countries differ, as the French from the English, but those of the same-country vary in the different provinces, and all commonly from the standard. Thus the common English mile differs from the statute mile, and the French have three sorts of leagues.

We shall here give the miles of several countries, compared with the English by Dr. Hally.

The English statute mile consists of 5280 feet, 1760 yards, or 8 furlongs.

Eleven miles Irish are equal to fourteen English.

The Russian vorst is little more than $\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Turkish, Italian, and old Roman lesser mile, is nearly 1 English.

The Arabian, ancient and modern, is about $1\frac{1}{4}$ English.

The Scotch mile is about $1\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The Indian is almost 3 English.

The Dutch, Spanish, and Polish, is about $3\frac{1}{2}$ English.

The German is more than 4 English.

The Swedish, Danish, and Hungarian, is from 5 to 6 English.

The French common league is near 3 English, and

The English marine league is 3 English miles.

NATURAL DIVISIONS of the EARTH.

THE Planet which we inhabit, called the Earth, is made up of land and water, and is therefore called *terraqueous*. About one fourth of the surface of the globe is land; the other three fourths are water.

The common divisions of the land and water are as follows:—

The Divisions of Land are,

I. *Continents.*] A continent is a very large tract of country, not entirely separated by water. There are commonly reckoned two continents, the *Eastern* and *Western*. The eastern continent is divided into Europe, Asia, and Africa: The western, into North and South America. To these we may now add the continent of

New

The Divisions of Water are,

I. *Oceans.*] An ocean is a vast collection of water, not entirely separated by land. There are five great oceans; the *Atlantic*, lying between America on the west, and Europe and Africa on the east, 3,000 miles wide. The *Pacific*, between America on the east, and Asia on the west, 10,000 miles over. The *Indian*, which washes

New Holland, which is found to be sufficiently large to bear the respectable name of continent. Some geographers reckon four continents, viz. Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. But according to the above definition there are but the three mentioned.

II. *Islands.*] An island is a tract of land entirely surrounded with water; as Rhode Island, Long Island, Cuba, Ireland, Great Britain, Japan.

III. *Peninsulas.*] A peninsula is almost an island, or a tract of land surrounded by water, excepting at one narrow neck; as Boston, the Morea, Crim Tartary, and Arabia.

IV. *Isthmuses.*] An isthmus is a narrow neck of land joining a peninsula to the main land; as the isthmus of Darien, which joins North and South America, 70 miles over; and the isthmus of Suez, which unites Asia and Africa, 60 miles over.

V. *Promontories.*] A promontory is a mountain or hill extending into the sea, the extremity of which is called a cape. A point of flat land projecting far into the sea, is likewise called a cape; as Cape Ann, Cape Cod, Cape Hatteras, Cape Horn.

VI. *Mountains.*] A mountain is a part of the land more elevated than the adjacent country, and seen at a distance; as the White Hills.

washes the eastern shores of Africa, and the southern shores of Asia, 3,000 miles wide. Besides these there is the *Northern* or *Frozen* ocean, lying northward of Europe and Asia, 3,000 miles wide; and the *Southern*, extending from the southern coasts of Africa to the south pole, 8,500 miles over.

II. *Lakes.*] A lake is a large collection of water in the interior parts of a country, surrounded by land; most of them, however, communicate with the ocean by rivers; as lake Ontario, &c. A small collection of water surrounded as above, is called a pond.

III. *Seas.*] A sea or gulf is a part of the ocean, surrounded by land, excepting a narrow pass, called a strait, by which it communicates with the ocean; as the Mediterranean, Baltic, and Red Seas; and the gulfs of Mexico, St. Lawrence, and Venice.

IV. *Straits.*] A strait is a narrow passage out of one sea into another; as the straits of Gibraltar, joining the Mediterranean to the Atlantic; the straits of Babelmandel, which unite the Red Sea with the Indian Ocean.

V. *Bays.*] A bay is a part of the sea running up into the main land, commonly between two capes; as Massachusetts Bay, between Cape Ann and Cape Cod; Delaware Bay, between Cape May and Cape Henlopen; Chesapeake Bay, between Cape Charles and Cape Henry.

VI. *Rivers.*] A river is a considerable stream of water, issuing from one or more springs, and gliding into the sea. A small stream is called a rivulet or brook.

*An ACCOUNT of the GREGORIAN or NEW STYLE.**

POPE Gregory the XIII. made a reformation of the Calendar. The Julian Calendar, or Old Style, had, before that time, been in general use all over Europe. The year, according to the Julian Calendar, consists of 365 days and 6 hours; which 6 hours being one fourth part of a day, the common years consisted of 365 days, and

* From Pike's Arithmetic.

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every fourth year one day was added to the month of February, which made each of those years 366 days, which are usually called Leap Years.

This computation, though near the truth, is more than the solar year, by 11 minutes, which in 131 years amounts to a whole day. In consequence of this, the vernal equinox was anticipated ten days from the general Council of Nice, held in the year 325 of the Christian *Æra*, to the time of Pope Gregory; who therefore caused ten days to be taken out of the month of October, 1582, to make the Equinox fall on the 21st of March, as it did at the time of that Council. And to prevent the like variation in future, he ordered that three days should be abated in every four hundred years, by reducing the Leap year at the close of each century, for three successive centuries, to common years, and retaining the Leap year at the close of each fourth century only.

At that time this was considered as exactly conformable to the true solar year; but Dr. Hally makes the solar year to be 365 days, 5 hours, 48 minutes, 54 seconds, 41 3ds, 27 4ths, 36 5ths; according to which, in 400 years, the Julian year of 365 days 6 hours will exceed the solar by three days, one hour and 53 minutes, which is nearly two hours, so that in fifty centuries it will amount to a day.

Though the Gregorian Calendar, or New Style, had long been used throughout the greater part of Europe, it did not take place in Great Britain and America till the first of January 1752, and in September following, the 11 days were adjusted, by calling the third day of that month the fourteenth, and continuing the rest in their order.

A T A B L E,

Exhibiting the Superficial Content of the whole Globe, in Square Miles, sixty to a degree, and also of the Seas and Unknown Parts, the Habitable Earth, the Continents; likewise the great Empires, and principal Islands, arranged according to their magnitude.

	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
The Globe about	199,000,000	Celebes	68,400
Seas and unknown parts	160,000,000	Manilla	58,500
The habitable World	39,000,000	Iceland	46,000
America	14,000,000	Terra del Fuego	42,000
Asia	10,500,000	Mindinao	39,100
Africa	9,500,000	Cuba	38,400
Europe	2,600,000	Java	38,200
Continent of New Holland	4,000,000	Hispaniola	36,000
Persian Empire under Darius	1,600,000	Newfoundland	35,500
Roman Empire in its meridian	1,600,000	Ceylon	27,700
Russia	4,000,000	Ireland	27,500
Chinese	1,700,000	Formosa	17,000
Great Mogul	1,100,000	Anian	12,000
United States of America	1,000,000	Gilolo	10,400
Turkish Empire	950,000	Sicily	9,400
Present Persia	800,000	Timor	7,800
Borneo	228,000	Sardinia	6,600
Madagascar	168,000	Cyprus	6,300
Sumatra	129,000	Jamaica	6,000
Japan	118,000	Flores	6,000
Great Britain	72,900	Ceram	5,400
		Breton	

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	Square Miles.		Square Miles.
Breton - - -	4,000	Cephalonia - -	420
Socrata - - -	3,600	Amboyna - - -	400
Candia - - -	3,220	Orkney Pomona - -	324
Porto Rico - -	3,200	Scio - - - -	300
Corfica - - -	2,520	Martinico - - -	260
Zealand - - -	1,900	Lemnos - - - -	220
St. Jago - - -	1,400	Corfu - - - -	194
Long Island or Manhattan	1,400	Providence - - -	168
Majorca - - -	1,400	Man - - - - -	160
Negropont - - -	1,300	Bornholm - - - -	160
Teneriff - - -	1,270	Wight - - - - -	150
Gothland - - -	1,000	Malta - - - - -	150
Madeira - - -	950	Barbadoes - - -	140
St. Michael - -	920	Antigua - - - -	100
Skyc - - - - -	900	St. Christopher's - -	80
Lewis - - - - -	886	St. Helena - - -	80
Funen - - - - -	768	Guernsey - - - -	50
Yvica - - - - -	625	Rhode Island - - -	50
Minorca - - -	520	Jersey - - - - -	43
Rhodes - - - -	480	Bermudas - - - -	40
New Guinea	}	Islands lately discovered, but not fully explored, and whose dimensions are not exactly known.	
New Zealand			
New Caledonia			
New Hebrides			
Otaheite			
Friendly Islands			
Marquesas			
Easter or David's			
Pelew Islands.			

HISTORY AND DISCOVERY

OF

A M E R I C A.

IT is believed by many, and not without some plausible foundation, that America was known to the Ancients. Of this, however, history affords no certain evidence. The Norwegians, the Welsh, and the Germans, each in their turn, have made pretensions to the discovery of America. As early as 874 the Norwegians discovered, and planted a colony in Iceland; and in 982, they discovered, and made settlements in Greenland. Thence, some of their enterprising navigators, proceeded still farther westward till they discovered a country, the coast of which was sandy, but the interior parts level and covered with wood, on which account they called it *Helle-land* and *Mark-land*, and having afterwards found some plants of the vine, which bore grapes, they called it *Wine-land* or *Vine-land*. But where this country lies historians are not agreed. If it was any part of the American coast, as it probably must have been, all attempts to plant colonies in it proved unsuccessful, and the knowledge of it was soon lost.*

The

* Mons. Mallet, in the first volume of his *Northern Antiquities*, gives us from authorities of unquestionable credibility, a circumstantial account of the discovery and settlements of *Vine-land*. This Author informs that Iceland was peopled by a colony of Norwegians, under Ingulph, in the year 874. Greenland was settled by Eric Rufus, a young Norwegian, in the year 982; and before the eleventh century, churches were founded, and a bishopric erected at Garde, the capital of the settlement. Shortly after this, Biarn, an Icelandic navigator, by accident, discovered land to the westward of Greenland, which was more fully explored in the year 1002, and from the description given, answers to no other than the American coast.

The discovery of a distant country, says our author, "called *Vine-land*, and the reality of a Norwegian colony's settling there, appear to be facts, so well attested on all sides, and related with circumstances so probable, as to leave no room for any doubt. But to settle the geography of the country where this happened, is not an easy matter. It could not, however, have been far from the coasts of Labrador, or those of Newfoundland; both which are in the vicinity of Greenland.

Mr. Calm (or Kalm) a Swedish botanist, educated under Linnæus, who some years since travelled through Canada, with a view to acquaint himself with its natural history, conjectures that the colony of *Vine-land* was in the Island of Newfoundland, which is separated from that part of the continent called Labrador, by a narrow strait only, of a few leagues, called Belle-isle. Davis's strait, which separates Greenland from the American continent, is known to be very narrow in several places. The Greenlanders, according to Mr. Egede, assert, that it is only a deep bay which runs on, narrowing towards the north, till the opposite American continent can be easily discerned from the Greenland shore; and that the extremity of this bay ends in a river, over which wandering savages, inured to cold, might easily pass from one land to the other, without canoes. And hence the peopling of the north-eastern part of the American continent is easily and rationally accounted for.

All accounts agree in describing *Vine-land* as a country which spontaneously produces the Vine. And this has led Dr. Robertson and others to consider the whole history as too fabulous to be credited. Doctor Robertson asserts that grapes are not the production either of Labrador, or Newfoundland. But the learned Mr. Ellis,

The pretensions of the Welsh to the discovery of America have but a slight foundation. In the 12th century, according to Powell, a dispute having arisen among the sons of Owen Gwyneth, king of North-Wales, concerning the succession to his crown, Madoe, one of the number, weary of this contention, betook himself to sea, in search of a more peaceful settlement. He steered due west, leaving Ireland to the north, and arrived in an unknown country, which appeared to him desirable; he returned to Wales, and carried thither several of his adherents and companions. This is said to have taken place about the year 1170. He and his colony have not been heard of since.

Some German authors ascribe the honour of having discovered America, to Martin Behaim, their countryman. He descended from a noble family, of the imperial town of Nuremberg—was a scholar of the celebrated John Muller, and became an adept in the science of cosmography. Under the patronage of the Duchess of Burgundy he repaired to Lisbon, whither the fame of the Portuguese discoveries invited all the adventurous spirits of the age. In 1483, in company with Diego Cano, he made a voyage to the southward, and is said to have discovered the kingdom of Congo, on the coast of Africa. He settled in the island of Fayal, one of the Azores, and was a particular friend of Columbus. He constructed a terrestrial globe, which afterwards fell into the hands of Magellan. On this globe Magellan laid down the course which he purposed to hold in search of the communication with the South Sea, which he afterwards discovered. In the year 1492, Behaim visited his relations at Nuremberg, and left with them a map, drawn with his own hand, which is still preserved among the archives of the family. So far the story of Martin Behaim is well authenticated; but as to the accounts of his having discovered any part of the American coast, though credited by some ingenious men, they have too great an appearance of conjecture to gain general belief.* For aught we can learn from authentic documents, the eastern continent was the only theatre of history, the partial discoveries of the Norwegians

in his voyage to Hudson's bay, mentions that he met with the vine, about the English settlements at that place, and compares the fruit of it to the currants of the Levant. And credible travellers say, that the vine grows spontaneously in Canada, and in still more northern latitudes, and bears a small well-tasted fruit.

On the whole, concludes our Author, "there can be no doubt but that the Norwegian Greenlanders discovered the American continent; that the place where they settled was either the country of Labrador or Newfoundland; and that their colony subsisted there a good while. This is all we can say about it with any certainty. To endeavour to ascertain the exact situation, extent and fortune of the establishment, would be a fruitless labour.

*The Librarian of St. Mark's Library at Venice, in a letter to the Editors of a foreign magazine, furnishes the following curious fact relative to the discovery of America.

"To the inquiry which you make," said he "I answer, that in the nautical map, existing in St. Mark's Library, and lately published here by Signior Formaleoni, on the spot, where at present the *Antilles* are known to be, there certainly is delineated, a great island, with various harbours, and near it is written *y. de Antillia*. The delineation and the writing are all by the same hand; it cannot therefore, be said, that any addition has been made to it. In it is written, in ancient characters, and by the same hand which wrote all the rest, *Andreas Bianco de Venetiis me fecit MCCCCXXXVI.*† Let it not appear extraordinary to you, that in those times they had a confused notion of the Antilles. I shall shew that even before the discovery of Columbus, they had an idea of them, and that the *Antillia* were mentioned. This I shall treat of in illustrating the manuscripts of *Andria Bianco*, together with the rest of St. Mark's library, which now employs all the time I am able to call my own."

Col. Mag. for Nov. 1791.

N. B The *Antilles* lie in the bay of Mexico, between the island of Cuba and South America.

† Fifty-six years before Columbus sailed, for the first time, from the port of Palos, in Spain, for the discovery of the New World.

excepted

excepted, from creation till the year of our Lord 1492; and Columbus has a fair claim to the honour of being the discoverer of the NEW WORLD.

As the following work proposes to give a description of this NEW WORLD, as it was originally called, especially of its most interesting parts, which have lately become the scene of the most important events that adorn the page of history, an account of its discovery may rationally be expected.

CHRISTOPHER COLON or COLUMBUS, a subject of the republic of Genoa, was among the foreigners, whom the fame of the discoveries of the Portuguese had allured into their service. He descended from a noble family reduced by misfortunes; but neither the time nor place of his birth are certainly known. His ancestors, having had recourse to a seafaring life for support, Columbus, from his early youth, discovered such peculiar talents for that profession, as indicated his future greatness.—His parents encouraged this original propensity by giving him a suitable education. After acquiring some knowledge of the Latin tongue, the only language in which science was taught at that time, he was instructed in geometry, cosmography, astronomy, and the art of drawing. To these he applied with such ardour and predilection, on account of their connection with navigation, his favourite object, that he made rapid proficiency in them. Thus qualified, in 1461, at the early age of fourteen, he went to sea, and began his career on that element which conducted him to so much glory. His early voyages were limited principally to those places which had before been discovered, in which nothing very remarkable happened, except that in a sea fight, off the coast of Portugal, with some Venetian coasters, the vessel on board which he served, took fire, together with one of the enemy's, to which it was fast grappled; upon which he threw himself into the sea, laid hold of a floating oar, and by the support of it, and his dexterity in swimming, he reached the shore, though more than six miles distant, and thus preserved a life designed for great undertakings.

Soon after this he went to Lisbon, where he married a daughter of Bartholomew Perestrelo, one of the captains employed by Prince Henry in his early voyages, and who had discovered and planted the islands of Porto Santo and Madeira. The journals and charts of this experienced navigator, his father-in-law, fell into his hands, and he, with avidity, availed himself of the valuable information they contained. His impatience to visit the places which Perestrelo had seen and described, became irresistible; and he made a voyage to Madeira, and spent several years in trading with that island, the Canaries, the Azores, the settlements in Guinea, and all other places which the Portuguese had discovered on the continent of Africa.

By the experience acquired during such a variety of voyages, Columbus became one of the most skilful navigators of Europe. But his ambition did not permit him to rest satisfied with that praise. He aimed at something more. A project had been conceived of finding out a passage by sea to the East Indies. The accomplishment of this became a favourite object with Columbus. The Portuguese sought this rout by steering towards the south, in hope of arriving at India, by turning to the east, after they had sailed round the farther extremity of Africa; which passage was afterwards effected 1497, by Vasco de Gama, a Portuguese navigator. Columbus contemplated a shorter and more direct passage to the East Indies, by sailing towards the west, across the Atlantic Ocean. The principles and arguments which induced him to adopt this opinion, then considered as chimerical, were highly rational and philosophical. The sphericity and magnitude of the earth were at that period ascertained with some degree of accuracy. From this it was evident, that the continents of Europe, Asia, and Africa, formed but a small

part of the terraqueous globe. It appeared likewise extremely probable, that the continent on the one side of the globe, was balanced by a proportionable quantity of land in the other hemisphere. These conclusions concerning the existence of another continent, drawn from the figure and structure of the globe, were confirmed by the observations and conjectures of modern navigators, and from pieces of timber artificially carved, canes of an enormous size, trees torn up by the roots, and the dead bodies of two men with singular features, which had been discovered and taken up, floating before a westerly wind, or driven on the coasts of the Azores. The force of this united evidence, arising from theoretical principles and practical observations, led Columbus to conclude, that by sailing directly towards the west, across the Atlantic ocean, new countries, which probably formed a part of the vast continent of India, must infallibly be discovered.

As early as the year 1474, he communicated his ingenious theory to Paul, a physician of Florence, eminent for his knowledge of cosmography. He warmly approved of the plan; suggested several facts in confirmation of it, and encouraged Columbus to persevere in an undertaking so laudable, and which must redound so much to the honour of his country, and the benefit of Europe.

Columbus now became impatient to bring to the test of experiment, the truth of his system, and to set out upon a voyage of discovery. The first step towards this was to secure the patronage of some of the considerable powers of Europe. With this view he laid his scheme before the Senate of Genoa, and making his native and beloved country, the first tender of his service, offered to sail, under the banners of the republic, in quest of new regions which he expected to discover. But they, incapable of forming just ideas of his principles, inconsiderately rejected his proposal as chimerical. He then submitted his plan to the Portuguese, who perfidiously attempted to rob him of the honour of accomplishing it, by privately sending another person to pursue the same tract which he had proposed. But the pilot, who was thus basely employed to execute Columbus' plan, had neither the genius nor the fortitude of its author. Contrary winds arose—no land appeared—his courage failed, and he returned to Lisbon, execrating a plan which he had not abilities to execute.

On discovering this flagrant treachery, Columbus immediately quitted the kingdom in disgust, and landed in Spain, towards the close of the year 1484. Here he resolved to propose it in person to Ferdinand and Isabella, who at that time governed the united kingdoms of Castile and Arragon. He, in the mean time, sent his brother Bartholomew to England, to propose his plan to Henry VII.

After experiencing a series of mortifying disappointments, during eight tedious years, which the brevity of this history will not permit us to relate, Columbus, in deep anguish, withdrew from court, determined to repair to England as his last resource. At this juncture the affairs of Spain, which had been perplexed in consequence of a war with the Moors, took a favourable turn. Quintanilla and Santangel, two powerful, vigilant and discerning patrons of Columbus, seized this favourable opportunity to make one more effort in behalf of their friend. They addressed themselves to Isabella, with such forcible arguments as produced the desired effect. They dispelled all Isabella's doubts and fears;—she ordered Columbus, who had proceeded on his journey, to be instantly recalled—declared her resolution to employ him on his own terms; and regretting the low estate of her finances, generously offered to pledge her own jewels, in order to raise as much money as might be needed in making preparations for the voyage. Santangel, in a transport of gratitude, kissed the queen's hand, and, in order to

save

save her from having recourse to such a mortifying expedient for procuring money, engaged to advance, immediately, the sum that was requisite.

Columbus had proceeded some leagues on his journey, when the messenger from Isabella overtook him. He returned with joy mingled with some degree of fear, lest he should again be disappointed. The manner of his reception by the queen was, however, such as quickly dispelled his fears. A negotiation commenced, and was forwarded with dispatch, and a treaty of capitulation, with Columbus, was signed on the 7th of April 1492. The chief articles of it were, 1. Ferdinand and Isabella, as sovereigns of the ocean, constituted Columbus their high admiral in all the seas, islands, and continents, which should be discovered by his industry; and stipulated, that he and his heirs for ever should enjoy this office, with the same powers and prerogatives which belonged to the high admiral of Castile, within the limits of his jurisdiction. 2. They appointed Columbus their viceroy in all the islands and continents which he should discover; but if, for the better administration of affairs, it should be necessary to establish a separate governor in any of those countries, they authorised Columbus to name three persons, of whom they would chuse one for that office; and the dignity of viceroy, with all its immunities, was likewise to be hereditary in the family of Columbus. 3. They granted to Columbus and his heirs for ever, the tenth of the free profits accruing from the productions and commerce of the countries which he should discover. 4. They declared, if any controversy or lawsuit should arise, with respect to any mercantile transaction, in the countries which shall be discovered, it should be determined by the sole authority of Columbus, or of judges to be appointed by him. 5. They permitted Columbus to advance one eighth part of what should be expended in preparing for the expedition, and in carrying on commerce with the countries which he should discover, and intitled him, in return, to an eighth part of the profit.

Though the name of Ferdinand appears conjoined with that of Isabella in this transaction, his distrust of Columbus was so violent, that he refused to take any part of the enterprize, as king of Arragon. As the whole expence of the expedition was to be defrayed by the crown of Castile, Isabella reserved for her subjects of that kingdom, an exclusive right to all the benefits which might redound from its success.

After all the efforts of Isabella and Columbus, the armament was suitable, neither to the dignity of the power who equipped it, nor to the importance of the service to which it was destined. It consisted of three vessels; the largest, a ship of no considerable burden, was commanded by Columbus, as admiral, who gave it the name of *Santa Maria*. Of the second, called the *Pinta*, Martin Pinzon was captain, and his brother Francis pilot. The third, named the *Nigna*, was under the command of Vincent Yanez Pinzon. These two last mentioned were light vessels, hardly superior in burden or force to large boats.—This little squadron was victualled for twelve months, and had on board ninety men, mostly sailors, together with a few adventurers, who followed the fortune of Columbus, and some gentlemen of Isabella's court, whom she appointed to accompany him. The sum employed in fitting out this squadron did not exceed £. 4000, sterling.

On the 3d of August, 1492, being Friday,* Columbus set sail, in the presence of a vast

* The superstitious notion that *Friday* is an unlucky day to commence a voyage, did not, it seems, exist in the time of Columbus; otherwise he would not have fixed on this *unlucky day* to set sail on so important a voyage. When and whence did this superstitious notion originate? Why do men continue to entertain it, in an age, which boasts a freedom from the shackles of superstition? Is it not time that it was banished? The

vast crowd of spectators, who offered fervent supplications to heaven for his success, which they rather wished than expected. He steered directly for the Canary islands, and in the short run thither, found his ships crazy and ill appointed, and very unfit for so long and dangerous a navigation as he had undertaken. After refitting them as well as he could, he left the Canaries on the 6th of September, and here properly commenced the voyage of discovery. He held his course due west, and immediately left the usual track of navigation, and stretched into unknown and unfrequented seas. By the 14th of September the fleet was about 200 leagues west of the Canaries, at a greater distance from land than any Spaniard had been before that time.

Columbus early discovered, from the spirit of his followers, that he must prepare to struggle, not only with the unavoidable difficulties which might be expected from the nature of his undertaking, but with such also as were likely to arise from the ignorance and timidity of the people under his command. All the art and address he was master of was hardly sufficient to quell the mutinous disposition of his sailors, who grew the more turbulent in proportion as their distance from home increased. What most astonished Columbus, during the voyage, was the variation of the magnetic needle. He observed that it did not point exactly to the polar star, but varied towards the west. This appearance, then one of the mysteries of nature, though now familiar, filled the companions of Columbus with terror. They were now in the midst of a trackless ocean—nature herself seemed to be altered, and the only guide they had left was about to fail them. Columbus, with no less quickness than ingenuity, invented a reason for this appearance, which, though it did not satisfy himself, seemed so plausible to them, that it dispelled their fears, and silenced their murmurs.

On the evening of the 11th of October, Columbus was so confident, from various appearances, of being near land, that he ordered the sails to be furled, and the ships to lie to, and strict watch to be kept lest they should be driven on shore in the night. During this interval of suspense and expectation, no man shut his eyes, all kept on deck, gazing intently towards that quarter where they expected to discover the land, which had so long been the object of their wishes. A little before midnight, Columbus, from the forecabin, discovered a light at a distance—and shortly after the joyful sound of *land! land!* was heard from the Pinta, which always kept a head of the other ships. At the dawn of day, an island was seen from every ship, at the distance of about two leagues north, whose verdant aspect indicated a most delightful country. The crews of all the ships, with tears of joy and transports of congratulation, unitedly sang *Te Deum*, as a hymn of thanksgiving to God. They then, with feelings of self condemnation, mingled with reverence, threw themselves at the feet of Columbus, begged him to forgive their ignorance, incredulity and insolence, which had given him so much unnecessary disquiet—acknowledged his superior abilities, and promised obedience in future.

At sunrise, the boats were manned and armed, and they rowed towards the island with their colours displayed, with warlike music and other martial pomp. As they approached the coast, they saw it covered with a multitude of people, whom the novelty of the spectacle had drawn together, whose attitudes and gestures expressed wonder and astonishment at the strange objects before them. Columbus was the first European who set foot in the New World which he had discovered. He landed in a

success of Columbus in discovering a New World, during a voyage commenced on *Friday* proves, *if any thing*, that this is the most *lucky day* in the seven, for going to sea:—If so, why would it not be well to substitute it in the room of the Sabbath, which is now too commonly fixed on for that purpose?

rich

rich dress, and with a naked sword in his hand. His men followed, and kneeling down, they all kissed the ground which they had so long desired to see. They next erected a crucifix, and prostrating themselves before it, returned thanks to God for conducting their voyage to so happy an issue. They then took solemn and formal possession of the country for the crown of Castile and Leon.

The dress of the Spaniards, their beards, their arms, the vast machines with which they had traversed the ocean, the thundering roar of the cannon, accompanied with lightning and smoke, filled the natives with surprise and terror, and they began to consider them as children of the sun, who had descended to visit mortals here below.

The Spaniards were hardly less amazed in their turn. The productions of the island were different from any thing they had seen in Europe. The inhabitants appeared in the simple innocence of nature, entirely naked. Their black hair, long and uncurled, floated upon their shoulders, or was bound in tresses round their heads. They had no beards, and every part of their bodies was perfectly smooth. Their complexion was of a dusky copper colour; their features singular rather than disagreeable, and their aspect gentle and timid. They were shy at first, through fear, but soon became familiar with the Spaniards, and with transports of joy, received from them various kinds of trinkets, in return for which they gave provisions, and some cotton yarn, the only commodity of value they could produce. Thus in the first interview between the inhabitants of the Old and New Worlds, every thing was conducted amicably, and to their mutual satisfaction.

The island on which Columbus first landed he called San Salvador. It is one of that large cluster of islands known by the name of the Lucaya or Bahama islands, and is above 3000 miles west of the Canaries.

He afterwards touched at several islands of the same cluster, inquiring every where for gold, which he thought was the only object of commerce worth his attention. In steering southward, he discovered the islands of Cuba and Hispaniola, abounding in all the necessaries of life, and inhabited by a humane and hospitable people.

On his return to Spain he was overtaken by a storm, which had nearly proved fatal to his ships and their crews. At a crisis when all was given up for lost, Columbus had presence of mind enough to retire into his cabin, and to write upon parchment a short account of his voyage. This he wrapped in an oiled cloth, which he inclosed in a cake of wax, put it into a tight cask, and threw it into the sea, in hopes that some fortunate accident might preserve a deposit of so much importance to the world. He arrived at Palos in Spain, whence he had sailed the year before, on the 15th of March 1493. He was welcomed with all the acclamations which the populace are ever ready to bestow on great and glorious characters; and the court received him with marks of the greatest respect.

In September, of this year, (1493) Columbus sailed upon his second voyage to America; during the performance of which, he discovered the islands of Dominica, Marigalante, Gaudaloupe, Montferrat, Antigua, Porto Rico, and Jamaica; and returned to Spain 1496.

In 1498, he sailed a third time for America; and on the 1st of August discovered the continent, at the mouth of the river Oronoke. He then coasted along westward, making other discoveries, for 200 leagues to Cape Vela, from which he crossed over to Hispaniola, where he was seized by a new Spanish governour, and sent home in chains.

DISCOVERY OF AMERICA.

In 1502 Columbus made his fourth, and last, voyage to Hispaniola; thence he went over to the continent—discovered the bay of Honduras—thence sailed along the main shore easterly 200 leagues, to Cape Gracias a Dios, Veragua, Porto Bello, and the Gulf of Darien, searching, in vain, for a passage to the East Indies. During this voyage, he was shipwrecked on the Island of Jamaica, where he suffered almost inconceivably from the cruelty of the inhabitants, the mutiny of his men, and especially from the infamous conduct of the governor of Hispaniola. He returned to Spain in 1504. On his arrival he received the fatal news of the death of his patroness, Queen Isabella.

The jealous and avaricious Spaniards, not immediately receiving those golden advantages from these new discoveries, which they had promised, and lost to the feelings of humanity and gratitude, suffered their esteem and admiration of Columbus to degenerate into ignoble envy.

The latter part of his life was made wretched by the cruel persecutions of his enemies. Queen Isabella, his friend and patroness, was no longer alive to afford him relief. He sought redress from Ferdinand, but in vain. Disgusted with the ingratitude of a monarch whom he had served with so much fidelity and success, exhausted with hardships, and broken with the infirmities which these brought upon him, Columbus ended his active and useful life at Valladolid, on the 20th of May, 1506, in the 59th year of his age. He died with a composure of mind suited to the magnanimity which distinguished his character, and with sentiments of piety becoming that supreme respect for religion which he manifested in every occurrence of his life. He was grave though courteous in his deportment, circumspect in his words and actions, irreproachable in his morals, and exemplary in all the duties of his religion.

Among other adventurers to the New World, in pursuit of gold, was Americus Vesputius, a Florentine gentleman, whom Ferdinand had appointed to draw sea charts, and to whom he had given the title of chief pilot. This man accompanied Ojeda, an enterprising Spanish adventurer, to America; and having with much art, and some degree of elegance, drawn up an amusing history of his voyage, he published it to the world. It circulated rapidly, and was read with admiration. In his narrative, he had insinuated that the glory of having first discovered the New World belonged to him. This was in part believed, and the country began to be called after the name of its supposed first discoverer. The unaccountable caprice of mankind has perpetuated the error; so that now, by the universal consent of all nations, this new quarter of the globe is called AMERICA. The bold pretensions of a fortunate impostor have robbed the discoverer of the New World of a distinction which belonged to him. The name of Americus has supplanted that of Columbus, and mankind are left to regret an act of injustice, which, having been sanctioned by time, they can never redress.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF AMERICA.
BOUNDARIES *and* EXTENT.

THE continent of America, of the discovery of which a succinct account has just been given, extends from Cape Horn, the southern extremity of the continent, in latitude 56° south, to the north pole; and spreads between the 40th degree east, and

and the 100th degree west longitude from Philadelphia. It is nearly ten thousand miles in length from north to south. Its average breadth may be about 14 or 1500 miles. This extensive continent lies between the Pacific Ocean on the west, and the Atlantic on the east. It is said to contain upwards of 14,000,000 square miles.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] In regard to each of these, America has all the varieties which the earth affords. It stretches through almost the whole width of the five zones, and feels the heat and cold of two summers and two winters in every year. Most of the animal and vegetable productions which the eastern continent affords, are found here; and many that are peculiar to America, of which accounts will be given in their proper places.

RIVERS.] This continent is watered by some of the largest rivers in the world. The principal of these are Rio de la Plata, the Amazon and Oronoke, in South America—The Mississippi and St. Lawrence, in North America.

GULF.] The Gulf or Bay of Mexico, lying in the form of a basin, between North and South America, and opening to the east, is conjectured by some to have been formerly land; and that the constant attrition of the waters in the Gulf Stream has worn it to its present form. The water in the Gulf of Mexico is said to be many yards higher than on the western side of the continent in the Pacific Ocean.

GULF STREAM.] The *Gulf Stream* is a remarkable current, issuing from the Gulf of Mexico, whence it takes its name, and proceeding along the coast of Florida and the United States, to the banks of Newfoundland, where it turns off and runs down through the Western Islands; thence to the coast of Africa, and along that coast in a southern direction till it arrives at, and supplies the place of those waters, carried by the constant trade-winds from the coast of Africa towards the west, thus producing a perpetual circulating current.

This stream is probably generated by the great accumulation of water, on the eastern coast of America between the tropics, by the trade-winds which constantly blow there. It is known that a large piece of water ten miles broad, and generally only three feet deep, has, by a strong wind, had its waters driven to one side and sustained so as to become six feet deep, while the windward side was laid dry. This may give some idea of the quantity heaped upon the American coast, and the reason of its running down in a strong current through the islands into the Gulf of Mexico and issuing as above-mentioned. This also renders the opinion, that the waters in the bay of Mexico are considerably higher than the waters on the opposite coast of the Pacific Ocean, in a high degree probable.

This stream is distinguished from the other parts of the ocean by the gulf weed, with which it is every where interspersed. It is also always much warmer, 8 or 10 degrees, than the sea on each side of it, and it does not sparkle in the night, as do the other waters of the ocean. It is no wonder that so vast a body of deep warm water, several leagues wide, coming from between the tropics, and issuing out of the gulf, into the northern seas, should retain its warmth longer than the 20 or 30 days required to its passing the banks of Newfoundland. The quantity is too great, and too deep to be suddenly cooled by passing under a cooler air. The air immediately over it may receive so much warmth from it as to be rarefied and rise, being rendered lighter than the air on each side of the stream; hence the surrounding denser air must rush in to supply the place of the rising warm air, and meeting with each other form those tornadoes and water-spouts, which are so common in and near the stream: and as the vapour from a cup of tea, in a warm room, is hardly discernible, but becomes visible in the cold air; so the vapour from the Gulf Stream, in warm latitudes, is scarcely visible,
but

but when it comes into cool air, off Newfoundland, it is condensed into the fogs for which those parts are so remarkable.

The power of wind to raise water above its common level in the sea, is evident by the high tides occasioned in all our American sea ports, when a strong north-east wind blows against the Gulf Stream.

Skilful navigators, who have acquired a knowledge of the extent to which this stream reaches on the New England coast, have learnt, in their voyages from Europe to New England, New York, or Pennsylvania, to pass the banks of Newfoundland in about 44° or 45° North latitude; to sail thence in a course, between the northern edge of the Gulf Stream, and the shoals and banks of Sable Island, George's Bank, and Nantucket, by which they make better and quicker passages to America.

This stream is about 75 miles from the shores of the southern States. The distance increases as you proceed northward. The width of it is about 40 or 50 miles, widening towards the north. Its common rapidity is 3 miles an hour. A north-east wind narrows the stream, renders it more rapid, and drives it nearer the coast; north-west and west winds have a contrary effect.

ISTHMUS OF DARIEN.] The celebrated Isthmus of Darien, which divides North and South America, lies in about 8° North Latitude, and in the narrowest part is not more than 70 miles across on an E. N. E. and W. S. W. course. The country about the narrowest parts of the Isthmus is made up of low, sickly vallies, and mountains of such stupendous height, as to incline one to imagine that nature had raised them to serve as an eternal barrier between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, which here approach so near each other, that from these mountains you can plainly discern the waters of both at the same time and seemingly at a very small distance.

Some have imagined it practicable to unite these oceans by a canal, through this Isthmus. But an English gentleman, from a late careful survey of the country, pronounces such an undertaking impracticable: as the mountains run north and south, and several ridges of them, consisting of little else than solid rock and immense beds of oyster shells, must be dug through in order to accomplish it. But by going into 12° North Latitude, and joining the head of Lake Nicaragua to a small river that runs into the Pacific Ocean, a communication becomes practicable; and by 30 miles digging through a level, low country, two oceans may be joined, and a tedious navigation saved, of 10,000 miles, round Cape Horn. What would be the consequences of such a junction is not easy to say, but it is very probable, that a small canal, in this place, would in the course of a few years be formed into a deep river, more especially when we consider that the waters on the opposite shore of the Atlantic, as we before observed, are considerably higher than those in the Pacific.

Probably too, in a length of years, such a junction would wear away the earthy parts of the Isthmus, and form a broad strait between the oceans; in which case the Gulf Stream would cease, being turned into a different channel, and a voyage round the world would become an inconsiderable thing.

Upwards of an hundred years ago, the Scots people had so just an idea of the great importance of this Isthmus, that they sent out a colony to settle there, which settlement, however, proved abortive, through the extreme jealousy of the Spaniards in that neighbourhood, but more through the shameful partiality of William III. and the jealousy of the English nation.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountains on this Western Continent are the famous chain of the *Andes* of South America. They stretch along the Pacific Ocean from the Straits of Magellan to the Isthmus of Darien or Panama, upwards of 4000 miles; thence they are

are continued through the extensive kingdom of New Spain till they lose themselves in the unknown countries of the North. In New Spain, the most considerable part of this chain is known by the name of *Sierra Madre*, particularly in Cinaloa, and Tarahumary, provinces 1200 miles distant from the capital. Farther north they have been called, from their bright appearance, the *Shining Mountains*.

Little is known respecting them. It is conjectured that they terminate in about 47 or 48 degrees of North latitude, where a number of rivers rise and empty themselves either into the Pacific Ocean, into Hudson's Bay, into the waters which lie between them, or into the Atlantic ocean.

The *Alleghany Mountains*, extending from Georgia to Hudson's river, in New York, are next in magnitude and length to the *Andes*. It is not improbable that they are a branch of the *Andes*, striking off in some part of South America, and interrupted by the Gulf of Mexico. It has been conjectured that the West India islands were formerly united with each other, and formed a part of the continent. Their present disjointed situation is supposed to have been occasioned by the trade-winds. It is well known, as we have before mentioned, that they produce a strong and continual current in the ocean from east to west, which, by beating against the continent for a long course of years, must have caused great alterations, and may possibly have produced the effect supposed.

In the Bahama channel are many indications that the Island of Cuba was once united to Florida.

POPULATION.] There are no *data* from which we may estimate the number of inhabitants in America with any degree of accuracy. All calculations must proceed on uncertain grounds. The population of most of those countries which have been settled by Europeans has not been ascertained; who then is capable of estimating the number of inhabitants in those numerous countries which have been very particularly explored, and those which are altogether unknown to any European or other civilized nation? and such are those vast regions west, north-west, and north of the Mississippi and the Lakes, and immense countries in the interior parts of South America. The number of provinces, kingdoms, and even of nations, is unknown. We can therefore hardly guess at the number of inhabitants.

It has been common in estimating the population of the whole world to give 150 millions to America. The calculations of P. Riccioli, make them 300 millions.—Sufimilch, in one part of his work, computes them at 100 millions, in another at 150 millions.—M. de Paw says, that political arithmeticians do not reckon more than 100 millions; but it is his own opinion that there are not more than from thirty to forty millions of "real Americans." I know not the principles upon which either of these authors grounded their calculations. I am inclined, however, to differ from them all. Some of them I am persuaded are far beyond the truth; and M. de Paw, I imagine, has erred on the other hand. I ground myself different from the common opinion, and from the estimates of the forementioned respectable authors, on a calculation made on the following simple principles, which I adopt because I know of none better.

I suppose the continent of America to contain 14 millions of square miles; including the islands, 15 millions. The United States contain one million square miles, or one fifteenth part of the American continent and islands. I suppose (merely for the purpose of calculation, what I do not believe to be fact) that every other part of America is as populous as the United States. Probably there may be some parts, particularly the West India islands, and some provinces in Spanish America, which are more populous, but there are many other parts which are by no means so populous. The probability in my opinion, that the other parts of America, collectively considered, are not nearly

so thickly inhabited as the territory of the United States. There is certainly no reason to believe that they are more populous. Indian population is thin : and vast tracts of deserts, marshes, and mountains are uninhabited. In the United States we reckon four millions of inhabitants, Anglo-Americans, Negroes, Mulattoes, and Indians, within the jurisdiction of the general government. Besides these there may be about 50,000 Indians, independent of the United States, and subject to their own princes. The whole population of the United States then we reckon at 4,050,000. If then we suppose America to contain 15 millions of square miles ; and that in every part it is equally as populous as the United States, that is, that there are in every million of square miles 4,050,000 inhabitants, the whole number will be *sixty millions, seven hundred and fifty thousand*. The exact number I presume is considerably less than this.

WHEN WAS AMERICA PEOPLED ? } That America was peopled very anciently and soon after the flood, is very probable : 1. Because the aboriginal Americans, till they became acquainted with Europeans, were ignorant of those arts and inventions, such, among others, as those of wax and oil for light, which being very ancient in Europe and Asia, on the one hand, are, on the other, most useful, not to say necessary, and when once discovered, are never forgotten. 2. Because the polished nations of the New World, and particularly those of Mexico, preserve in their traditions and paintings, the memory of the Creation of the World, the building of the Tower of Babel, the confusion of languages, and the dispersion of the people, though blended with some fables, and had no knowledge of the events which happened afterwards in Asia, Africa, or in Europe, many of which were too remarkable to escape the memory. 3. Because neither was there among the Americans any knowledge of the people of the old continent, nor among the latter any account of the passage of the former to the New World. These reasons we presume render it at least probable that America was peopled early after the flood.*

WHO WERE THE FIRST PEOPLE OF AMERICA ? AND WHENCE DID THEY COME ? } On these two questions much has been said. Those who call in question the authority of the sacred writings say, the Americans are not descendants from Adam, that he was the father of the Asiatics only, and that God created other men to be the patriarchs of the Europeans, Africans, and Americans. But this is one among the many weak hypotheses of unbelievers, and is wholly unsupported by history. It is contrary to the tradition of the Americans, who in their paintings, and in their hymns, called themselves the descendants of those who escaped from the general deluge. The Mexicans, Toltecas, and several other nations were agreed in this point. They all said their ancestors came from other parts into those countries ; they pointed out the road they came, and even preserved the names, true or false, of their first progenitors, who, after the confusion of languages, separated from the rest of mankind. The traditions, with others, which the limits of this work will not allow us to insert, considered in connection with the sacred writings, must convince us that we ought to seek among the descendants of Noah, for the first peoplers of America.

But who were they ? To recite all the opinions given in answer to this question, and the reasons to support them, would fill a volume. Dr. Robertson, and the Abbe Clavigero have extensively and learnedly investigated the subject. I cannot expect to afford the reader more satisfaction than to give him the result of their inquiries. Dr. Robertson, having recapitulated and canvassed the most plausible opinions on the subject, comes to the following conclusions, viz.

* Abbe Clavigero's Hist. Mexico, Vol. II. page 210.

1. That America was not peopled by any nation from the ancient continent, which had made any considerable progress in civilization ; because when America was first discovered, its inhabitants were unacquainted with the necessary arts of life, which are the first essays of the human mind toward improvement ; and if they had ever been acquainted with them, for instance, with the plow, the loom, and the forge, their utility would have been so great and obvious, that it is impossible they should have been lost. Therefore the ancestors of the first settlers in America were uncivilized and unacquainted with the necessary arts of life.

2. America could not have been peopled by any colony from the more southern nations of the ancient continent ; because none of the rude tribes of these parts possessed enterprise, ingenuity, or power sufficient to undertake such a distant voyage : but more especially, because, that in all America there is not an animal, tame or wild, which properly belongs to the warm, or temperate countries of the eastern continent. The first care of the Spaniards, when they settled in America, was to stock it with all the domestic animals of Europe. The first settlers of Virginia and New England brought over with them, horses, cattle, sheep, &c. Hence it is obvious that the people who first settled in America, did not originate from those countries where these animals abound, otherwise, having been accustomed to their aid, they would have supposed them necessary to the improvement, and even support of civil society.

3. Since the animals in the northern regions of America correspond with those found in Europe in the same latitudes, while those in the tropical regions are indigenous, and widely different from those which inhabit the corresponding regions on the eastern continent, it is more than probable that all the original American animals were of those kinds which inhabit northern regions only, and that the two continents, towards the northern extremity, are so nearly united as that these animals might pass from one to the other.

4. It having been established beyond a doubt, by the discoveries of Capt. Cook in his last voyage, that at *Kamiskatka*, in about latitude 66° north, the continents of Asia and America are separated by a strait *only* 18 miles wide, and that the inhabitants on each continent are similar, and frequently pass and repass in canoes from one continent to the other ; from these and other circumstances it is rendered highly probable, that America was first peopled from the north-east parts of Asia. But since the Esquimaux Indians are manifestly a separate species of men, distinct from all the nations of the American Continent, in language, in disposition, and in habits of life ; and in all these respects bear a near resemblance to the northern Europeans, it is believed that the Esquimaux Indians emigrated from the north-west parts of Europe. Several circumstances confirm this belief. As early as the ninth century the Norwegians discovered Greenland, and planted colonies there. The communication with that country, after long interruption, was renewed in the last century. Some Lutheran and Moravian missionaries, prompted by zeal for propagating the Christian faith, have ventured to settle in this frozen region. From them we learn, that the north-west coast of Greenland is separated from America, but by a very narrow strait, if separated at all ; and that the Esquimaux of America perfectly resemble the Greenlanders in their aspect, dress, mode of living, and probably language. By these decisive facts, not only the consanguinity of the Esquimaux and Greenlanders is established, but the possibility of peopling America from the north-west parts of Europe. On the whole, it appears rational to conclude, that the progenitors of all the American nations, from Cape Horn to the southern limits of Labrador, from the similarity of their aspect, color, &c. migrated from the north-east parts of Asia ; and that the nations that inhabit Labrador, Esquimaux and the parts adjacent, from their
unlikeness

unlikeness to the American nations, and their resemblance to the northern Europeans, came over from the north-west parts of Europe.*

Such is the opinion of Dr. Robertson, on the question before us; and for want of information, it is in several respects inaccurate and without foundation. The opinion of the Abbe Clavigero, who was a native of America, and had much better advantages for knowing its history than Dr. Robertson, and who also is a later writer, is in my opinion far less exceptionable, and has much better grounds for its support. He explains his opinion in the following conclusions:—

1. The Americans descended from different nations, or from different families dispersed after the confusion of tongues. No person will doubt of the truth of this who has any knowledge of the multitude and great diversity of the American languages. In Mexico alone *thirty-five* have already been discovered. In South America still more are known. In the beginning of the last century the Portuguese counted *fifty* in Maragnon. Between some of these languages, there is indeed a great affinity; but others are as different from each other as the English and the Hebrew. It is a truth, that no living or dead languages can differ more than the languages of the Mexicans, Otomies, Tarascas, Mayas, and Miztecas, five languages prevailing in different provinces of Mexico. It would therefore be absurd to say, that languages so different were different dialects of one original. Is it probable or even possible, that a nation should alter its primitive language to such a degree, or multiply its dialects so variously as that there should not be, even after many centuries, if not some words common to all, at least an affinity between them, or some traces left of their origin?

2. The Americans do not derive their origin from any people now existing as a nation on the eastern continent; at least there is no reason to affirm that they do. This inference is founded on the same argument with the preceding; since, if the Americans are descendants from any of these nations it would be possible to trace their origin by some marks in their languages, in spite of the antiquity of their separation: but any such traces have not yet been discovered, although most diligent and attentive search has been made, as appears from the work of Dominican Garcia. We have, says Clavigero, leisurely compared the Mexican and other American languages with many others which are now living, and with those which are dead, but have not been able to discover the least affinity between them. This argument is strong with respect to the Americans, as they shew great firmness and constancy in retaining their languages. The Mexicans preserve their language among the Spaniards, and the Otomies retain their difficult dialect among Spaniards and Mexicans, after communication with both for more than two centuries and an half.

If the Americans descended from different families dispersed soon after the confusion of tongues, as we believe, and have since been separated from those others who peopled the countries on the eastern continent, authors will labour in vain to seek, in the language or customs of the Asiatics, for the origin of the people of America.

But the most difficult point in the problem of the population of America remains to be solved, and that is, how did the inhabitants and animals originally pass to America, and from what parts did they come? Among the various opinions of authors upon this point, the following is the Abbe Clavigero's:

1. The men and animals of America passed there from the old continent. This is confirmed by the sacred writings. Moses, who declares Noah the common father of all men who survived the deluge, says expressly, that in that general inundation of the earth all its quadrupeds, birds and reptiles, perished, except a few, of the several

* Hist. of America, Vol. II. p. 22, &c.

species which were saved alive in the ark, to re-people the earth with their kind. The repeated expressions which the sacred historian uses to signify its universality, do not permit us to doubt, that all quadrupeds, birds, and reptiles, which are in the world, descended from those few individuals which were saved from the general inundation.

2. The first inhabitants of America might pass there in vessels by sea, or travel by land or by ice. 1. They might either pass there in vessels designedly, if the distance by water were but small, or be carried upon it accidentally by favourable winds. 2. They might pass by land, on the supposition of the union of the continents. 3. They might also make that passage over the ice of some frozen arm of the sea.

3. The ancestors of the nations which peopled *Anahuac*, (now called *New Spain*) might pass from the northern countries of Europe into the northern parts of America, or, which is more probable, from the most eastern parts of Asia to the most western parts of America. This conclusion is founded on the constant and general tradition of those nations, which unanimously say, that their ancestors came into *Anahuac* from the countries of the north and north-west. This tradition is confirmed by the remains of many ancient edifices, built by those people in their migrations. In a journey made by the Spaniards in 1606, from New Mexico unto the river which they call *Tizon*, 600 miles from that province towards the north-west, they found there some large edifices, and met with some Indians who spoke the Mexican language, and who told them, that a few days journey from that river, towards the north, was the kingdom of *Tollan*, and many other inhabited places, whence the Mexicans migrated. In fact, the whole people of *Anahuac* have usually affirmed, that towards the north were the kingdoms and provinces of *Tollan*, *Aztlan*, *Copalla*, and several others, which have all Mexican names. *Boturini* says, that in the ancient paintings of the *Toltecas* was represented the migration of their ancestors through Asia and the northern countries of America, until they established themselves in the country of *Tollan*; and even endeavours to ascertain in his general history, the rout they pursued in their travels.

With respect to the other nations of America, as there is no tradition among them, concerning the way by which their ancestors came to the new world, we can say nothing certain of them. It is *possible*, that they all passed by the same way in which the ancestors of the Mexicans passed; but it is more probable that they passed by a very different rout. We conjecture, that the ancestors of the nations of South America went there by the way in which the animals proper to hot countries passed; and that the ancestors of those nations inhabiting *Esquimaux*, and *Labrador*, and the countries adjacent, passed thither from the north-west parts of Europe. The difference of character which is discoverable in the three above-mentioned classes of aboriginal Americans, and the situation of the countries which they occupied, afford ground to suspect that they had different origins, and that their ancestors came there by different routs. But this is mere conjecture.

4. The quadrupeds and reptiles of the new world passed there by land. This fact is manifest from the improbability and inconsistency of all other opinions. *St. Augustin* solves the difficulty of peopling the islands with wild beasts and destructive animals by supposing either, 1. That the angels transported them thither, (a solution, which, though it cuts off every difficulty in the passage of animals to the new world, would not be satisfactory in the present age); or 2. That they might swim to the islands; or 3. That they might have been carried there by men for the sake of hunting; or 4. That they might have been formed there by the Creator in the beginning. Others have imagined that beasts might pass over some frozen strait or arm of the sea. But as

neither of these opinions can be supported,* the probability is, that the quadrupeds, as well as the reptiles which are found in America, passed thither by land, and of course that the two continents were formerly united. This was the opinion of Acoſta, Gro-tius, Buffon, and other great men. That this earth has experienced great changes ſince the deluge will not admit of a doubt. Earthquakes have ſwallowed up large tracts of land in ſome places—ſubterraneous fires have thrown up others—the ſea in ſome places has been forced to retreat many miles from the ſhore—in others it has made encroachments—and in many inſtances ſeparated territories which were formerly united. Very conſiderable tracts of land have been alſo formed at the mouths of rivers. We have many examples of all theſe revolutions—Sicily was formerly united to the continent—The ſtraits of Gibraltar, as Diodorus, Strabo, and other ancient authors affirm, were formed by a violent irruption of the ocean upon the land between the mountains Abyla and Calpe. The people of Ceylon have a tradition, that a ſimilar irruption of the ſea ſeparated their iſland from the peninſula of India. The ſame is believed by the inhabitants of Malabar with reſpect to the Iſles of Maldivia, and by the Malayans with reſpect to Sumatra. Ceylon, as Buffon aſſerts, has loſt 30 or 40 leagues of land, by the ſea; and Tongres, a place in the Low Countries; has gained 30 leagues of land from the ſea—And Florida and the ſouthern American States have gained as much from the Bay of Mexico, and the iſlands between North and South America.—The northern part of Egypt owes its exiſtence to inundations of the Nile—And the province of Yellow-River in China, and part of Louiſiana in America, have both been formed by the mud of rivers. The peninſula of Yucatan has every appearance of having once formed a part of the bed of the ſea. In the ſtrait which ſeparates America from Aſia, many iſlands are found which probably were the mountains belonging to that part of the land which we ſuppoſe to have been ſwallowed up by earthquakes; which is rendered probable by the multitude of volcanoes which have been diſcovered in the peninſula of Kamtſkatka. The ſinking of that land, however, and the ſeparation of the two continents, was probably occaſioned by thoſe extraordinary earthquakes mentioned in the hiſtories of the Americans, which formed an era almoſt as memorable as that of the deluge.

5. The quadrupeds and reptiles of America paſſed by different places from the one continent to the other. Among the American beaſts there are many whoſe natures are averſe to cold; ſuch are apes, dantes, crocodiles, &c.—There are others formed to inhabit cold countries; ſuch are martins, rein-deer, and gluttons. The former could not go to America through any country in the frigid zone;—their natures would not have admitted it—they would have perished in their paſſage—We cannot indeed imagine what inducement they could have to quit a climate, congenial to their nature, and undertake a journey they knew not whither, through a region whoſe cold they could not endure—How did they know there was a country friendly to their natures in America?

The apes which are in New Spain paſſed there, certainly, from South America. Time was when they did not inhabit that country—and it is known that they came from the South. The center of their population is the country under the equator, and 14 or 15 degrees on each ſide of it. It decreases as you depart from this tract on either ſide, till you arrive at the tropics, when it ceases, and none are found, except in ſome

* See Clavigero's Hiſt. of Mex. Vol. II. Diſſert. I. p. 216, where all theſe opinions are ſhewn to be highly improbable, not to ſay impoſſible.

few districts, which, from the peculiarity of their situation, are as hot as the equinoctial country. None can imagine that this species of animals travelled to the new world, through the cold regions of the north. Nor can we believe that they were transported thither by men; for, not to mention that some of them are of a ferocious disposition, and very unlikely to be selected to be companions on a long voyage, to people a new country, there is another still greater difficulty: as they could not have been conducted over the seas and countries of the north, on account of the cold, they must have been transported from the warm countries of the old, to the warm countries of the new world, over a sea subject to a climate not dissimilar to the native country of those quadrupeds, that is, by the countries of the southern parts of Asia, to about the same latitudes in America, over the Indian and Pacific Oceans—or from the western countries of Africa, to the eastern countries of America, over the Atlantic Ocean. If, therefore, men transported those animals from the one to the other world, they did it across those seas. But was this navigation accidental or designed? If the former, how, and why did they carry so many animals with them? If the latter, if they were determined to pass from the old to the new continent, who gave them intelligence of the new world? Who shewed them the situation of those countries? How did they venture to cross such vast seas without a compass? In what vessels did they pass? If they landed there happily, why does there not remain, among the Americans, some memory of their constructions? Why—but it is needless to start more objections; these already mentioned can never be answered.

Besides, in the torrid zone, and the warm climates that border upon it, in the new world, crocodiles are common animals which require a hot or temperate climate, and live alternately on land or in sweet water: how did such animals pass there? Not by the north—they could not endure the cold—No one will believe they were transported by men—nor yet that they swam thither 2000 miles through an ocean of salt water.

There remains no other solution but that of admitting an ancient union between the equinoctial countries of America and those of Africa—and a connection of the northern countries of America with Europe on the east, and Asia on the west—so that there has probably been a period since the flood, when there was but ONE continent.—The beasts of cold climes passed over the northern isthmuses, which probably connected Europe, America, and Asia—and the animals and reptiles peculiar to hot countries, passed over the isthmus that connected South America with Africa—For the reasons already mentioned induce us to believe that there was formerly a tract of land, which united the most eastern part of Brazil to the most western part of Africa; and that all the space of land may have been sunk by violent earthquakes, leaving only some traces of it in that chain of islands of which Cape de Verd, Fernando, de Norona, Ascension and St. Matthew's islands make a part; and also in those many sand banks discovered by different navigators, and particularly by de Bauche, who founded that sea with great exactness. These islands and sand banks may, probably, have been the highest parts of that sunken isthmus. In like manner it is probable the north-western part of America was united to the north-eastern part of Asia by a neck of land which has been sunk or washed away, and the north-eastern parts of America to the north-western parts of Europe, by Greenland, Iceland, &c.

On the whole, we cannot but believe that the quadrupeds and the reptiles of the new world passed there by land, and by different routs, from the old continent. All other suppositions are subject to heavy difficulties; and this is not without some, which however are not altogether insurmountable. The greatest is the improbability of an earthquake so great as to sink a space of land for more than 1500 miles in length, which,
according

according to our supposition, united Africa and South America. But we do not ascribe this stupendous revolution to a single shock—it may have been effected by a succession of earthquakes. It is well known that they are common in the climates where we suppose the isthmus to have been. It is not impossible nor improbable, that such an effect should be produced by earthquakes, nor is history unfurnished with such examples to our purpose. The earthquake which was felt in Canada in 1663,* overwhelmed a chain of mountains of free stone more than 300 miles long, and the whole of that immense tract was changed into a plain. How great then must have been the convulsion which was occasioned by those extraordinary earthquakes, mentioned in the histories of America, when the world was thought to be coming to an end!

It may farther be objected to this system, that if beasts passed by land from one continent to the other, it is not easy to assign the cause why some species passed there without leaving a single individual in the old continent; and on the contrary, that some entire species should remain in the old continent, and not a single individual of them pass to America. But this objection operates with equal force against all other opinions, except that which employs angels in the transportation of beasts. But suppose it did not, we have a satisfactory answer to it. All the quadrupeds of the earth are not yet known, we cannot therefore say how many are in the one which are not in the other continent. The knowledge of the best informed zoologists is very imperfect, and they differ among themselves. The Count de Buffon numbers only two hundred species of quadrupeds. Bomare, who wrote a little after him, makes them 265; but to say how many more there may be, and of what kinds they are, until we have examined the interior regions of Africa, of a great part of Tartary, the country of the Amazons, and the vast territory west of the Mississippi, and various other unexplored and extensive countries, which together constitute a great part of the whole globe, would be mere conjecture. No argument, therefore, can be inferred from the difference of the animals in the two continents against our system, till the animals in these unexplored regions shall have been examined.†

We have dwelt the longer on this subject, as it must be interesting to every inquisitive mind, and the discussion of it is blended with much useful information.

[INHABITANTS.] Having stated the present population of America, from the best data we could find, and given the most probable accounts of the manner in which it was originally peopled, it will be expected that we now say something of its inhabitants, of their character, manners, &c.

The present Americans, whose number we reckon at about 60 millions, may be divided into two general classes—First, the proper Americans, commonly called Indians, sometimes Aborigines, or those who are descended from the first inhabitants of the new world, and who have not mixed their blood with the inhabitants of the old continent. Secondly, those who have migrated, or have been transported to America, since its discovery by Columbus, and their descendants. The former may be subdivided into three classes; first, the South American Indians, who came over in the manner we have supposed, from the northern and western parts of Africa, and the southern parts of Asia and Europe. Secondly, the Mexicans and all the Indians south of the Lakes and west of the Mississippi. Thirdly, the inhabitants of Esquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around them. The latter may also be distinguished into three classes—First,

* See an account of this earthquake, and of many others which happened in New England, in the third Vol. of the American Museum, p. 292, written by Professor Williams, F. A. A. of Cambridge, (N. E.)

† Abbe Clavigero's Hist. of Mexico, Vol. II. Diss. I.

Europeans of many different nations, who have migrated to America, and their descendants, of unmixed blood:—In this class we include, the Spaniards, English, Scotch, Irish, French, Portuguese, Germans, Dutch, Swedes, &c. both in North and South America. Secondly, Africans who have been transported to America and its Islands, and their descendants. Thirdly, the mixed breeds, called by the Spaniards, *Casus*, by the English Mulattoes, that is, those who are descended from an European and an American, or from an European and African, or from an African and American. Leaving the second class, viz. the migrants to America since its discovery by Columbus, and their descendants, to be described when we shall treat of the countries they respectively inhabit, we shall, under this article, confine ourselves to the proper aboriginal Americans, or Indians.

We begin with the South Americans. Various have been the accounts given of these people. Some historians exalt them to the rank of the best and happiest people on earth; others seem unwilling to give them a place among human beings. We presume these historians, who differ so widely, spoke of different nations; and on this ground, with proper allowances for exaggeration on both sides, we may reconcile them. Columbus gives the following account of the Indians of Hispaniola, to Ferdinand and Isabella:

“ I swear to your majesties, that there is not a better people in the world than these; more affectionate, affable, and mild; they love their neighbours as themselves; their language is the sweetest, the softest, and the most cheerful, for they always speak smiling; and although they go naked, let your majesties believe me, their customs are very becoming; and their king, who is served with great majesty, has such engaging manners, that it gives great pleasure to see him, and also to consider the great retentive faculty of that people, and their desire of knowledge, which invites them to ask the causes and effects of things.” *

Las Casas, the first bishop of Chiapa, who resided several years in different parts of America, speaks thus of them: “ The Americans are a people of a bright and lively genius, easy to be taught, and to apprehend every good doctrine, extremely ready to embrace our faith, and the people, of all others in the world, who feel least embarrassment by it.” In another place, this writer says, “ The Indians have as good an understanding, and acute a genius, as much docility and capacity for the moral and speculative sciences, and are, in most instances, as rational in their political government, as appears from many of their very prudent laws, and are as far advanced in our faith and religion, in good customs and civilization, where they have been taught by persons of religious and exemplary life, and are arriving at refinement and polish as fast as any nation ever did since the times of the apostles.”

Doctor Robertson, speaking of the Mexicans and Peruvians, whom he is not disposed to rank with those nations which merit the name of civilised, has the following remarks—“ When compared with other parts of the new world, Mexico and Peru may be considered as polished states. Instead of small independent, hostile tribes, struggling for subsistence amidst woods and marshes, strangers to industry and arts, unacquainted with subordination, and almost without the appearance of regular government, we find countries of great extent subjected to the dominion of one sovereign, the inhabitants collected together in cities, the wisdom and foresight of rulers employed in providing for the maintenance and security of the people, the empire of laws in some measure established, the authority of religion recognized, many of the arts essen-

tial to life brought to some degree of maturity, and the dawn of such as are ornamental beginning to appear." These are testimonies respecting the Indians who inhabit the more northern parts of South America, and the islands; who appear to have made greater advances in civilization than those farther south, concerning whom our information is very imperfect.

Charlevoix, in his history of Paraguay, has collected from the Jesuits, perhaps the best information respecting the more southern Indians. Comparing his particular descriptions of the numerous nations who inhabit the southern division of South America, we give the following as the leading traits in their general character. They are generally of an olive complexion, some darker, others lighter, and some as white as the Spaniards. Their stature is rather below than above the middling size; though some nations rank among the tallest of the human species—most of them are thick legged and jointed, and have round and flat faces.

Almost all the men and children, in the warm climates, and in the summer, in colder regions, go quite naked. The women wear no more covering than the most relaxed modesty seems absolutely to require. Every nation have a different dialect, and a different mode of adorning themselves. The clothing of such as make use of it, is made of the skins of beasts, of feathers sewed together, and in the southern and colder regions, where they raise sheep, of wool manufactured into stuffs and blankets. They are represented as almost universally addicted to drunkenness. There seems to be no other vice common to them all. A few of them are cannibals, and some nations are idolators; in general they have some notions of a Supreme Being, and have words in their various languages to express their ideas of him. They believe in the immortality of the soul, and have some imperfect ideas of future rewards and punishments. They are universally addicted to various superstitions, and have much to do with witches and evil spirits.*—A great proportion of them lead a wandering life, are extremely indolent, dirty and wretched, living on fish, and the flesh of the various wild animals, birds, and even reptiles which inhabit the forests.—“All the Indians of South America,” says Charlevoix, “have hot stomachs,” which can digest all sorts of food, and in great quantities, and they are in general “excessively voracious.” Their notions of religion and government, with a few exceptions, are very rude. Some nations live compactly in towns and cultivate the earth, raising, among other productions, wheat, which they bruise between stones, and make into cakes. Some nations are represented as dull, cruel, and inconstant—others as fierce, cunning, and thievish—others as humane, ingenuous, and hospitable—and in general they are kind and attentive to strangers, so long as they are well used by them; and we seldom read of their being first in a quarrel with those who pass their territories, or sojourn among them. The astonishing success of the Jesuits in converting such multitudes of them to their faith, is a convictive proof of their capacity to receive instruction; of their docility, humanity, and friendly dispositions.

All accounts agree that the middle and southern parts of South America are very thinly inhabited, being interspersed with extensive ridges of mountains, immense barren plains, and numerous marshes.

* Father *Passor*, a Jesuit, one day visited one of the old women of the Abipone nation, a reputed witch, and at the point of death, and told her that if she died with out baptism, her soul would be eternally tormented by the devils. She very calmly answered, that they had been her friends for a long time, and she was therefore very sure they would do her no harm. *Hist. Par.* vol. i. p. 406.

As to the second class of American Indians, who formerly inhabited, and who yet inhabit Mexico and the country south of the lakes and west of the Mississippi, and who came over, as we have supposed, from the north-east parts of Asia; they seem, from whatever cause, to be advanced somewhat higher in the scale of human beings than the South Americans, if we except the Peruvians, who appear to have made greater progress in civilization than even the Mexicans. Concerning the nations of the vast country of Anahuac or New Spain, composing a large portion of the second class of the proper Americans, the Abbe Clavigero has the following observations: "We have had intimate commerce for many years with the Americans, have lived several years in a seminary destined for their instruction, had some Indians among our pupils, had particular knowledge of many American rectors, many nobles and numerous artists—attentively observed their character, their genius, their dispositions and manner of thinking; and have examined, besides, with the utmost diligence, their ancient history, their religion, their government, their laws, and their customs; after such long experience and study of them, from which we imagine ourselves able to decide without danger of erring, we declare that the mental qualities of the American Indians are not in the least degree inferior to those of the Europeans—that they are capable of all, even the most abstract sciences, and that if equal care and pains were taken in their education, we should see rise among them philosophers, mathematicians, and divines, who would rival the first in Europe. But it is not possible to make great progress in the sciences, in the midst of a life of misery, servitude, and oppression.—Their ancient government, their laws, and their arts, evidently demonstrate that they suffered no want of genius."

This same author, who appears to be a competent judge, describes the Mexicans as being of a good stature, rather exceeding the middle size—well-proportioned in all their limbs—as having a fine olive complexion—narrow foreheads—black eyes—clean, firm, regular white teeth—thick, black, coarse glossy hair—thin beards, and generally no hair on their legs, thighs, and arms. They are neither very beautiful nor the reverse, but hold a middle place between the extremes. Some of the women are fair and beautiful. Deformities are scarcely known among them. Their senses are very acute, especially that of sight, which they enjoy unimpaired to the greatest age. They are moderate eaters, but much addicted to intemperance in drinking, which, as far as we know, is true of all the American Indians. They are patient of injuries and hardships, and grateful for benefits. Good faith is not so much respected as it deserves to be. They are naturally unsocial, serious, and austere, and are more anxious to punish crimes than to reward virtues. Generosity and perfect disinterestedness are striking traits in their character. Their religion is blended with much superstition; and some of the more ignorant are very prone to idolatry.

The respect paid by children to their parents, and by the young to the old, among those people, is highly commendable. Parents are fond of their children. The affection of husbands for their wives is less than the wives for their husbands; and it is very common for men to love their neighbours' wives better than their own. Courage and cowardice seem alternately to affect their minds, and it is difficult to determine which predominates. They can meet dangers in war, and such as proceed from natural causes, with great intrepidity, but are panic struck by the stern look of a Spaniard. On the whole, their character, like that of all other nations, is a mixture of good and bad.

Of their morality, the following exhortation of a Mexican to his son, may serve as a specimen: "My son, who art come into the light from the womb of thy mother like a chicken from the egg, and like it art preparing to fly through the world, we

know not how long Heaven will grant to us the enjoyment of that precious gem which we possess in thee; but however short the period, endeavour to live exactly, praying God continually to assist thee. He created thee: thou art his property. He is thy father, and loves thee still more than I do; repose in him thy thoughts, and day and night direct thy sighs to him. Reverence and salute thy elders, and hold no one in contempt. To the poor and distressed be not dumb, but rather use words of comfort. Honour all persons, particularly thy parents, to whom thou owest obedience, respect, and service. Guard against imitating the example of those wicked sons, who, like brutes that are deprived of reason, neither reverence their parents, listen to their instruction, nor submit to their correction; because whoever follows their steps will have an unhappy end, will die in a desperate or sudden manner, or will be killed and devoured by wild beasts.

“Mock not, my son, the aged or the imperfect. Scorn not him whom you see fall into some folly or transgression, nor make him reproaches; but restrain thyself, and beware lest thou fall into the same error which offends thee in another. Go not where thou art not called, nor interfere in that which does not concern thee. Endeavour to manifest thy good breeding in all thy words and actions. In conversation, do not lay thy hands upon another, nor speak too much, nor interrupt or disturb another’s discourse. When any one discourses with thee, hear him attentively, and hold thyself in an easy attitude, neither playing with thy feet, nor putting thy mantle to thy mouth, nor spitting too often, nor looking about you here and there, nor rising up frequently if thou art sitting; for such actions are indications of levity and low breeding.”—He proceeds to mention several particular vices which are to be avoided, and concludes—“Steal not, nor give thyself to gaming; otherwise thou wilt be a disgrace to thy parents, whom thou oughtest rather to honour for the education they have given thee. If thou wilt be virtuous, thy example will put the wicked to shame. No more, my son; enough hath been said in discharge of the duties of a father. With these counsels I wish to fortify thy mind. Refuse them not, nor act in contradiction to them; for on them thy life and all thy happiness depend.”

Although so much cannot be said with truth, perhaps, in favour of the more northern Indians, whom we have included in the second class, owing to the inferiority of their advantages, yet we are far from thinking them inferior in point of corporeal or mental endowments, to the Mexicans. In their complexion, size, and form, they are not in general unlike the Mexicans. In social and domestic virtues, in agriculture, arts, and manufactures, they are far behind the Mexicans—in their hospitality, equal—and in their eloquence in council, and bravery in war, perhaps superior. Their mode of life, and the state of society among them, afford few objects for the display either of their literary or political abilities.

Monf. Buffon has given an humiliating picture of the Aborigines of North America, which, as it is a false one, I shall not give the reader. Mr. Jefferion’s answer to M. Buffon, however, is so full of the most valuable information on this subject, that it must not be omitted in this place.—“Of the Indians of South America,” says Mr. Jefferion, “I know nothing; for I would not honour with the appellation of knowledge, what I derive from the fables published of them. These I believe to be just as true as the fables of *Æsop*. This belief is founded on what I have seen of man, white, red, and black, and what has been written of him by authors, enlightened themselves, and writing amidst an enlightened people. The Indian of North America being more within our reach, I can speak of him somewhat from my own knowledge, but more from the information of others better acquainted with him, and on whose truth and judgement

judgement I can rely. From these sources I am able to say, in contradiction to this representation, that he is neither more defective in ardor, nor more impotent with his female, than the white reduced to the same diet and exercise: That he is brave, when an enterprize depends on bravery; education with him making the point of honour consist in the destruction of an enemy by stratagem, and in the preservation of his own person free from injury; or perhaps this is nature; while it is education which teaches us to honour force more than finesse: that he will defend himself against an host of enemies, always chusing to be killed, rather than to surrender, though it be to the whites, who he knows will treat him well: that in other situations also he meets death with more deliberation, and endures tortures with a firmness unknown almost to religious enthusiasm with us: that he is affectionate to his children, careful of them, and indulgent in the extreme: that his affections comprehend his other connections, weakened, as with us, from circle to circle, as they recede from the center: that his friendships are strong and faithful to the uttermost * extremity: that his sensibility is keen, even the warriors weeping most bitterly on the loss of their children, though in general they endeavour to appear superior to human events: that his vivacity and activity of mind is equal to our's in the same situation; hence his eagerness for hunting, and for games of chance. The women are submitted to unjust drudgery. This I believe is the case with every barbarous people. With such, force is law. The stronger sex therefore imposes on the weaker. It is civilization alone which replaces women in the enjoyment of their natural equality. That first teaches us to subdue the selfish passions, and to respect those rights in others which we value in ourselves. Were we in equal barbarism, our females would be equal drudges. The man with them is less strong than with us, but their women stronger than our's; and both for the same obvious reason; because our man and their woman is habituated to labour, and formed by it. With both races, the sex which is indulged with ease is least athletic. An Indian man is small in the hand and wrist, for the same reason for which a sailor is large and strong in the arms and shoulders, and a porter in the legs and thighs.—They raise fewer children than we do. The causes of this are to be found, not in a difference of nature, but of circumstance. The women very frequently attending the men in their parties of war and of hunting, child-bearing becomes extremely inconvenient to them. It is said, therefore, that they have learnt the practice of procuring abortion by the use of some vegetable; and that it even extends to prevent conception for a considerable time after. During these parties they are exposed to numerous hazards, to excessive exertions, to the greatest extremities of hunger. Even at their homes the nation depends for food, through a certain part of every year, on the gleanings of the forest: that is, they experience a famine once in every year. With all animals, if the female be badly fed, or not fed at all, her young perish: and if both male and female be reduced to like want, generation becomes less active, less productive. To the obstacles then of

* A remarkable instance of this appeared in the case of the late Col. Byrd, who was sent to the Cherokee nation to transact some business with them. It happened that some of our disorderly people had just killed one or two of that nation. It was therefore proposed in the council of the Cherokees that Colonel Byrd should be put to death, in revenge for the loss of their countrymen. Among them was a chief called Silouee, who, on some former occasion had contracted an acquaintance and friendship with Colonel Byrd. He came to him every night in his tent, and told him not to be afraid, they should not kill him. After many days deliberation, however, the determination was, contrary to Silouee's expectation, that Byrd should be put to death, and some warriors were dispatched as executioners. Silouee attended them, and when they entered the tent, he threw himself between them and Byrd, and said to the warriors, "this man is my friend: before you get at him, you must kill me." On which they returned, and the council respected the principle so much as to recede from their determination.

want and hazard, which nature has opposed to the multiplication of wild animals, for the purpose of restraining their numbers within certain bounds, those of labour and of voluntary abortion are added with the Indian. No wonder then if they multiply less than we do. Where food is regularly supplied, a single farm will shew more of cattle, than a whole country of forests can of buffaloes. The same Indian women, when married to white traders, who feed them and their children plentifully and regularly, who exempt them from excessive drudgery, who keep them stationary and unexposed to accident, produce and raise as many children as the white women. Instances are known, under these circumstances, of their rearing a dozen children. An inhuman practice once prevailed in this country of making slaves of the Indians. It is a fact well known with us, that the Indian women so enslaved, produced and raised as numerous families as either the whites or blacks among whom they lived.—It has been said, that Indians have less hair than the whites, except on the head. But this is a fact of which fair proof can scarcely be had. With them it is disgraceful to be hairy on the body. They say it likens them to hogs. They therefore pluck the hair as fast as it appears. But the traders who marry their women, and prevail on them to discontinue this practice, say, that nature is the same with them as with the whites. Nor, if the fact be true, is the consequence necessary which has been drawn from it. Negroes have notoriously less hair than the whites; yet they are more ardent. But if cold and moisture be the agents of nature for diminishing the races of animals, how comes she all at once to suspend their operation as to the physical man of the new world, and to let loose their influence on his moral faculties? How has this combination of the elements and other physical causes, so contrary to the enlargement of animal nature in this new world, these obstacles to the development and formation of great germs, been arrested and suspended, so as to permit the human body to acquire its just dimensions; and by what inconceivable process has their action been directed on his mind alone? To judge of the truth of this, to form a just estimate of their genius and mental powers, more facts are wanting, and great allowance to be made for those circumstances of their situation which call for a display of particular talents only. This done, we shall probably find that they are formed in mind as well as in body, on the same model with the * ‘*Homo sapiens Europæus.*’ The principles of their society forbidding all compulsion, they are to be led to duty and to enterprize by personal influence and persuasion. Hence eloquence in council, bravery and address in war, become the foundations of all consequence with them. To these acquirements all their faculties are directed. Of their bravery and address in war we have multiplied proofs, because we have been the subjects on which they were exercised. Of their eminence in oratory we have fewer examples, because it is displayed chiefly in their own councils. Some, however, we have of very superior lustre. I may challenge the whole orations of Demosthenes and Cicero, and of any more eminent orator, if Europe has furnished a more eminent, to produce a single passage superior to the speech of Logan, a Mingo chief, to Lord Dunmore, when governor of this state. And, as a testimony of their talents in this line, I beg leave to introduce it, first stating the incidents necessary for understanding it. In the spring of the year 1774, a robbery and murder were committed on an inhabitant of the frontiers of Virginia, by two Indians of the Shawanee tribe. The neighbouring whites, according to their custom, undertook to punish this outrage in a summary way. Col. Cresap, a man infamous for the many murders he had committed on those much

* Linn. Syst. Definition of a Man.

injured people, collected a party, and proceeded down the Kanhaway in quest of vengeance. Unfortunately a canoe of women and children, with one man only, was seen coming from the opposite shore, unarmed, and unsuspecting an hostile attack from the whites. Cresap and his party concealed themselves on the bank of the river, and the moment the canoe reached the shore, singled out their objects, and, at one fire, killed every person in it. This happened to be the family of Logan, who had long been distinguished as a friend of the whites. This unworthy return provoked his vengeance. He accordingly signalized himself in the war which ensued. In the autumn of the same year, a decisive battle was fought at the mouth of the Great Kanhaway, between the collected forces of the Shawanees, Mingoos, and Delawares, and a detachment of the Virginia militia. The Indians were defeated, and sued for peace. Logan however disdained to be seen among the suppliants. But, lest the sincerity of a treaty should be distrusted, from which so distinguished a chief absented himself, he sent by a messenger the following speech to be delivered to Lord Dunmore :

‘ I appeal to any white man to say, if ever he entered Logan’s cabin hungry, and he gave him not meat; if he ever came cold and naked, and he clothed him not. During the course of the last long and bloody war, Logan remained idle in his cabin, an advocate for peace. Such was my love for the whites, that my countrymen pointed as they passed, and said, ‘ Logan is the friend of white men.’ I had even thought to have lived with you, but for the injuries of one man. Col. Cresap, the last spring, in cold blood, and unprovoked, murdered all the relations of Logan, not sparing even my women and children. There runs not a drop of my blood in the veins of any living creature. This called on me for revenge. I have sought it: I have killed many: I have fully glutted my vengeance. For my country, I rejoice at the beams of peace. But do not harbour a thought that mine is the joy of fear. Logan never felt fear. He will not turn on his heel to save his life. Who is there to mourn for Logan? —Not one.’

Before we condemn the Indians of this continent as wanting genius, we must consider that letters have not yet been introduced among them. Were we to compare them in their present state with the Europeans north of the Alps, when the Roman arms and arts first crossed those mountains, the comparison would be unequal, because at that time, those parts of Europe were swarming with numbers; because numbers produce emulation, and multiply the chances of improvement, and one improvement begets another. Yet I may safely ask, how many good poets, how many able mathematicians, how many great inventors in arts or sciences, had Europe, north of the Alps, then produced? And it was sixteen centuries after this before a Newton could be formed. I do not mean to deny, that there are varieties in the race of man, distinguished by their powers both of body and mind. I believe there are, as I see to be the case in the races of other animals. I only mean to suggest a doubt, whether the bulk and faculties of animals depend on the side of the Atlantic on which their food happens to grow, or which furnishes the elements of which they are compounded? Whether nature has enlisted herself as a Cis or Trans-Atlantic partisan?

No people in the world have higher notions of military honour than the Indians. The fortitude, the calmness and even exultation which they manifest while under the extremest torture, is owing to their education, to their exalted ideas of military glory, and their rude notions of future happiness, which they believe they shall forfeit by the least manifestation of fear, or uneasiness, under their sufferings. They are as bitter and determined in their resentments as they are sincere in their friendships, and often

pursue

pursue their enemies several hundred miles through the woods, surmounting every difficulty, in order to be revenged.* In their public councils they observe the greatest decorum. In the foremost rank sit the old men, who are the counsellors, then warriors, and next the women and children. As they keep no records, it is the business of the women to notice every thing that passes, to imprint it on their memories; and tell it to their children. They are, in short, the records of the council; and with surprising exactness, preserve the stipulations of treaties entered into a hundred years back. Their kindness and hospitality is scarcely equalled by any civilized nation. Their politeness in conversation is even carried to excess, since it does not allow them to contradict any thing that is asserted in their presence. In short, there appears to be much truth in Dr. Franklin's observation, "We call them savages, because their manners differ from ours, which we think the perfection of civility; they think the same of their's."

Society among the Indians, we are sorry to say, has not been improved, but in most instances corrupted, by their intercourse with Europeans. It is believed by many, that the wars with them generally originate in the injustice, avarice, and pride of their opposers and vanquishers. None, however, can justify their mode of carrying on a war when once it has commenced. If the guilty, or those who should conceal and defend the guilty, were the sole objects of their vengeance, we could not condemn them. But when those who never did or meant them an injury, when defenceless women, and children, and even babes, are made the victims of their shocking barbarity, we cannot but deeply lament their want of that humanity, and just discrimination between the innocent and the guilty, which are the peculiar fruits of civilization. We wish we could say, that they never had any examples of indiscriminate barbarity from their neighbours, who ought to have taught them better.

The Indians many times treat their prisoners in the most cruel and barbarous manner; but they often use them with the greatest humanity, feeding and clothing them, even better than themselves, and adopting them as fathers, mothers, sons, and daugh-

* The following anecdote of an Algonquin woman, we find adduced as a remarkable proof of their innate thirst of blood. That nation being at war with the Iroquois, she happened to be taken prisoner, and was carried to one of the villages belonging to them. Here she was stripped naked, and her hands and feet bound with ropes in one of their cabins. In this condition she remained ten days, the savages sleeping round her every night. The eleventh night, while they were asleep, she found means to disengage one of her hands, with which she immediately freed herself from the ropes, and went to the door. Though she had now an opportunity of escaping unperceived, her revengeful temper could not let slip so favourable an opportunity of killing one of her enemies. The attempt was manifestly at the hazard of her own life; yet, snatching up a hatchet, she killed the savage that lay next her; and springing out of the cabin, concealed herself in a hollow tree which she had observed the day before. The groans of the dying person soon alarmed the other savages, and the young ones immediately set out in pursuit of her.—Perceiving from her tree, that they all took their course one way, and that no savage was near her, she left her sanctuary, and, flying by an opposite direction, ran into a forest without being perceived. The second day after this happened, her foot steps were discovered; and they pursued her with such expedition, that the third day she discovered her enemies at her heels. Upon this she threw herself into a pond of water; and, diving among some weeds and bulrushes, she could just breathe above water without being perceived. Her pursuers, after making the most diligent search, were forced to return.—For thirty-five days this woman held on her course through woods and deserts, without any other sustenance than roots and wild berries. When she came to the River St. Lawrence, she made with her own hands a kind of a wicker raft, on which she crossed it. As she went by the French for Trois Rivières, without well knowing where she was, she perceived a canoe full of savages; and fearing they might be Iroquois, ran again into the woods, where she remained till sun set.—Continuing her course soon after, she saw Trois Rivières; and was then discovered by a party whom she knew to be Hurons, a nation in alliance with the Algonquins. She then squatted down behind a bush, called out to them that she was not in a condition to be seen, because she was naked. They immediately threw her a blanket, and then conducted her to the fort, where she recounted her story.

ters, brothers, and sisters, and treating them in all respects as such. There have been instances of whites, thus adopted, while young, who have become chiefs of the nations that adopted them. Compulsion has frequently been found necessary to separate from their Indian relations, those white prisoners who have resided a few years with them; and many men and women, who have been ransomed and delivered up by the Indians to their white parents or relations, have returned back to their Indian friends, and of choice, married and settled among them.

A late enterprising traveller * into the country west of the Mississippi, who took his course west south-west from the posts on the lakes, and penetrated to the head of the Missouri, and thence due west, till he arrived within about 500 miles of the Pacific Ocean, informs, that beyond the Missouri he met with many powerful nations of Indians, who were in general courteous and hospitable. The nations which he visited to the westward appeared to be a polished, civilized people, having regularly built towns, and enjoying a state of society not far removed from the European; and in order to be perfectly equal, wanting only the use of iron and steel. Their clothing is of skins, cut in an elegant manner, and in many respects preferable to the garments in use among the whites.† Adjacent to these nations is a vast range of mountains, which may be called the *Allegany* of the western parts of America, and serves as a barrier against the too frequent incursions of the coast Indians, who, Mr. Stewart relates, appear to be inveterate enemies to the tribes eastward of the mountains.

The Indians are unacquainted with letters, and their history is preserved in some few instances by hieroglyphic paintings and sculpture, but principally by tradition. They often discover great ingenuity in communicating information to the absent. Of the following instance of Indian hieroglyphic writing, Doctor Mitchell, who in a very obliging manner communicated it to the Author, was an eye-witness.

Dr. Mitchell, in company with several other gentlemen, as they were proceeding up Onondago river, to an Indian treaty, overtook several canoes of Seneca Indians, who encamped with them at night near fort Brewington; and the next day proving rainy, they continued in company till the weather became so favourable as to permit them to cross the Oneida Lake. During the storm, one of the Indian canoes stove, and became unfit for service. The commissioners took the crew on board their boat, and carried them to a landing place some distance up Wood Creek. Here one of them, before he left the water, took the following method to let his companions, who were left behind, know when and whither they had proceeded. He took a piece of wood, and hewed it flat and smooth, and then raked his fire for a suitable coal, with which he rudely delineated, on the slab, the figure of an Indian carrying a gun reversed upon his shoulder. In front of him he drew a crooked line, which reached to a man with a long coat and a cocked hat, and holding a cane in his hand; and behind him a framed house. He then took a strait pole, and tied some weeds and grass upon one end of it, and fixed the other in the earth, in such a manner, that, in the position the sun then was, which was six o'clock in the morning, it cast no shadow—or, in other words, he pointed it exactly towards the sun. The meaning of all, was this—“Susquewewah (the name of the Indian) left this spot at six o'clock in the morning, or when the sun was in the place where the pole pointed, and has proceeded up Wood Creek, (which is remarkably crooked) to the settlement where the commissioners of the

* Mr. Stewart.

† This information of Mr. Stewart's serves to confirm the accounts given of the kingdom of *Tollan*, by the Spaniards who journeyed far north in 1606, and of whose discoveries we have already given an account in page 78.

State of New York are assembled to hold a treaty with the Indians."—All these *insignia* were arranged so conspicuously on the margin of the creek, that his companions behind could scarcely avoid observing them as they passed.

In the interior parts of America various monuments of art have been found, which discover greater ingenuity in their construction, than the present generation of Indians appear to possess.—Two miles west of the Genessee river, in the State of New York, we have been informed,* are the remains of an ancient Indian Fort. It encloses about 4 acres—is encompassed with a ditch 8 feet wide and 5 or 6 feet deep, and has six gate ways. Its form is circular, except on one part, which is defended by nature with a high bank, at the foot of which is a fine stream of water; there is an appearance of there having been a deep covered way through the middle of the bank to the water. Some of the trees on the bank and in the ditch look as if they had been growing 150 or 200 years. Half a mile south, on an eminence, are the ruins of another Indian fortified town, of smaller dimensions, and more advantageously situated for defence. The old Indians say these forts were built before the Senakas were admitted into confederacy with the Mohawks, Onondagos, Oneidas and Cayogas, and while the Senakas were at war with the Mississaugas, and other Indians, on the great lakes, which Mr. Kirkland conjectures, from various accounts that he received from different tribes, was at least 300 years ago.

A few miles from the above-mentioned forts, at a place which the Senakas call Tegateenedaghque, signifying a town with a fort at each end, are the remains of two other forts, constructed nearly in the same form, with six gates, a ditch, and a stream of water, and a covered way to it.—Near the northern fort, are the ruins of a funeral pile, 6 feet high, and 20 or 30 feet diameter, where were buried 800 Indians, who, according to tradition, fell in a famous battle fought at this place, between the Senakas, who were the victors, and the western Indians. The weapons of war then in use were bows and arrows, the spear or javelin pointed with bone, and the war club, or death mall. When the former sort of weapons were expended, they came to close engagement with the latter. The warriors wore a short jacket made of willow sticks or of moose wood, laced tight round their bodies—on their heads they wore a cap of the same kind, but commonly wove double, the better to secure them against a mortal blow from the death-mall. The battle above mentioned was fought, some of the Indians say 300, some 400, and some 500 lives or ages ago, and long before the arrival of the Europeans. They commonly reckon a life or an age, one hundred winters or colds.

Mr. Kirkland observes, that there are similar vestiges of ancient fortified towns throughout the extensive territories of the Six Nations, and, by Indian report, in various other parts, and particularly on a branch of the Delaware river, which appear to be very ancient. He adds, "I find on inquiring, that a tradition prevails among the Indians in general, that all Indians came from the west." This is a confirmation of the opinion that this second class of Indians; of whom we have been speaking, and of which the Six Nations make a part, came over from the north-east of Asia, to the north-west coast of America, whence they migrated south towards Mexico, and eastward into the present territory of the United States.

Judging of the ancient Indians from the traditional accounts of them, and the ruins we have been describing, we are led to conceive of them as a more civilized, ingenious, and warlike people than their descendants at the present time. We are at a loss for

* By the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, Missionary to the Six Nations, who visited this Fort, in 88.

the causes of their degeneracy, unless we mention as such the introduction of spirituous liquors among them, a deep sense of their inferiority in military skill to the white people, and their chagrin and broken heartedness, at the loss of their lands, and being forced to give place to their supposed enemies.

The third class of American Indians, viz. those who inhabit Esquimaux, Labrador, and the countries around, are much less known than either of the afore-mentioned classes. Those who profess to be best acquainted with them say, they differ in size and shape from the other American Indians, and resemble the Laplanders, and Samoieds, of Europe, from whom it is conjectured they descended.*

In the years 1771, and 1772, Mr. Hearne, an ingenious young gentleman, travelled many hundred miles into these dreary countries, (for such he found them) and in his journal draws a plain, artist's picture of the savage modes of life, the scanty means of subsistence, and the singular wretchedness in almost every respect, of the various tribes, who, without fixed habitations, pass their lives in roving over dreary deserts and frozen lakes, of the extensive tract of continent through which he passed.† The following extracts from his Journal will give the reader a better and more just idea of these Indians, than any accounts of them which the author can furnish from any other source.

“ We arrived at the Copper-mine river on the 13th of July, and as I found afterwards, about forty miles from its exit into the sea. On our arrival at the river, the Indians dispatched three men before, as spies, to see if any Esquimaux Indians were about the river: and on the 15th of the same month, as I was continuing my survey towards the mouth of the river, I met the spies, who informed me there were five tents of Esquimaux on the west side of the river, and by their accounts of the distance, I judged they were about twelve miles off. On receiving this news, no more attention was paid to my survey, but their whole thought was engaged on planning the best method of stealing on them the ensuing night, and killing them while asleep. The better to complete their design it was necessary to cross the river, and by the account of the spies, no place was so proper for that purpose as where we were, it being fine and smooth and at some distance from any cataract. Accordingly, after they had put their guns, targets, spears, &c. in order, we were ferried over the river, the doing of which (as we had only three canoes) took up a considerable time. It must be observed that before we set out on the west side, all the men painted their targets, some with the image of the Sun, others with the Moon, others with different kinds of birds and beasts of prey, and some had the images of fairies, and other imaginary beings on them, which, according to their silly imaginations, are inhabitants of the different elements, as the earth, sea, air, &c. By a strict inquiry into the reason of this superstition, I found that each man had the image of that being painted on his target, which he relied most on for success in the intended battle with the Esquimaux: and some were contented with a single representation, whilst others, doubtful, I suppose, of the power of any single being, would have their targets covered to the very margin with hieroglyphics, quite unintelligible.

* Crantz, however, is of a different opinion, as will be mentioned further on.

† Mr. Hearne set out on his tour from Prince of Wales' fort on Churchill river, N. Lat. 58° 47', W. Long. 97° 7', and travelled nearly 1300 miles in a north-westerly direction. His whole track, to the northward of 61° N. Lat. lay nearly 600 miles due West from the western coast of Hudson's bay. His Indian guides assured him there were vast tracts of land, stretching further in the same direction. Hence it appears that a passage into the Pacific ocean, round the N. West part of America, is clearly impracticable.

“ This piece of superstition being completed, we began to advance towards the tents of the Esquimaux, always walking in low grounds, and being very careful how we crossed any hills, for fear of being seen by the inhabitants. The number of my gang being so far superior to the five tents of Esquimaux, and the warlike manner in which they were equipped, in proportion to what might be expected of the poor Esquimaux, rendered a total massacre inevitable, unless kind Providence should work a miracle for their preservation. The land was so situated that we walked under cover of the hills till we came within 200 yards of their tents, where the Indians that were with me lay some time in ambush, watching the motions of the Esquimaux (for we were in full sight of their tents). The Indians advised me to stay here till the fight was over, with which I would by no means comply, for I thought when the Esquimaux were surprised, they would fly every way for refuge, and if they found me alone, not knowing me from an enemy, they would lay violent hands on me when there were none to assist. I therefore determined to accompany them, assuring them at the same time that I would have no hand in the murder unless I found it necessary for my own safety. They seemed highly pleased with my proposal, and directly fixed a spear and bayonet for me, but I had no target. By the time this was all settled it was near one o'clock in the morning, when finding all the Esquimaux asleep in their tents, they ran on them without being discovered, until they came close to their very doors. They then began the cruel massacre, while I stood neuter in the rear, and in a few seconds a scene truly shocking presented itself to my view. For as the poor unhappy victims were surprised in the midst of their sleep, they had neither power nor time to make any resistance, but men, women and children ran out of their tents quite naked. But alas, where could they fly for shelter! They every soul fell a sacrifice to Indian barbarity, in all near thirty. The shrieks and groans of the poor expiring souls were truly horrible, and this was much increased by the sight of one poor girl (about 18 years old) whom they killed so near to me, that when the first spear was struck into her, she fell down and twisted about my feet and legs, and it was with much difficulty I disengaged myself from her dying grasps. As the Indians pursued her, I solicited for her life, but so far was it from being granted, that I was not fully assured of my own being in entire safety for offering to speak in her behalf. When I begged her life, the two fellows that followed her made no reply, till they had both their spears through her fixed into the ground: they then both looked me sternly in the face, and began to upbraid me, by asking if I wanted an Esquimaux wife; at the same time paying no regard to the loud shrieks of the poor girl, who was twining round the spears like an eel. Indeed I was obliged at last to desire that they would be more expeditious in dispatching her out of her misery, lest otherwise I should be obliged out of pity, to assist in performing that friendly office. The brutish manner in which they used the bodies, which they had deprived of life, is too shocking, and would be too indecent to describe, and the terror of mind I was in from such a situation is so much easier to be conceived than described, that I shall not attempt it. When they had completed this most inhuman murder, we observed seven more tents on the opposite side of the river. The Indians of these tents were soon in great confusion, but did not offer to make their escape. The Indians fired many shot at them across the river, but the poor Esquimaux were so unacquainted with the nature of guns, that when the bullets struck the rocks they ran in great bodies to see what was sent them, and seemed curious in examining the pieces of lead which they found flatted on the rocks, till at last one man was shot through the leg, after which they embarked in their canoes, with their wives and children, and paddled to a

shoal in the river. When my Indians had made all their observations on the bodies, as above mentioned, and had plundered their tents of all their copper-work (which they and the Copper Indians used instead of iron) they assembled at the top of an high hill, standing in a circle with their spears erect in the air, and gave shouts of victory, calling *Tima! Tima!* by way of derision to the surviving Esquimaux who were standing on the shoal. We then went up the river about half a mile, to the place where our canoes and baggage were, with an intent to cross over and plunder the other seven tents. It taking up a considerable time to get all acroſs the river, as we had only three canoes, and being entirely under cover of the rocks, the poor Esquimaux whom we left on the shoal, thought we were gone about our own business, and had returned to their own tents again. And the land was so situated on the east side that the Indians went under cover of the hills, until they were within a hundred yards of their tents, where they saw the Esquimaux busy in tying up their bundles. They ran on them again with great fury, but having their canoes ready, they all embarked, and reached the shoals before-mentioned, except one poor old man, who being too attentive in tying up his things, had not time to reach his canoe, and so fell a sacrifice to Indian fury. After the Indians had plundered these tents of what they thought worth their notice, they threw their tent poles into the river, broke their stone kettles, and did all they could to distress the poor survivors. We found an aged woman at a small distance up the river, snaring of salmon, whom they butchered in the same manner, every man having a thrust at her with his spear."

The other extract is as follows:

"This day, January the 11th, 1772, as the Indians were hunting, some of them saw a strange snow-shoe track, which they followed, and at a considerable distance came to a little hut, where they found a young woman sitting alone. They brought her to the tents, and on examining her found that she was one of the western dog-ribbed Indians, and had been taken prisoner by the Arathapescow Indians, in the summer of 1770, and when the Indians, who took her prisoner, were near this place in 1771, she eloped from them, with an intent to return to her own country. But it being so far off, and when she was taken prisoner having come all the way in canoes, with the winding of rivers and lakes, she had forgot the way, and had been in this little hut ever since the beginning of fall. By her account of the moons past since her elopement, it appears to have been the middle of last July when she left the Arapathescow Indians, and she had not seen a human face since. She had supported herself by snaring rabbits, partridges and squirrels, and was now in good health, and I think, as fine a woman of a real Indian, as I have seen in any part of North America. She had nothing to make snares of but the sinews of rabbits legs and feet, which she twisted together for that purpose, and of the rabbits skins had made a neat and warm winter's clothing. The stock of materials she took with her when she eloped, consisted of about five inches of an iron hoop for a knife, a stone steel, and other hard stones for flints, together with other fire tackle, as tinder, &c. about an inch and an half of the shank of the shooing of an arrow, of iron, of which she made an awl. She had not been long at the tents, before half a score of men wrestled to see who should have her for a wife. She says, that when the Arathapescow Indians took her prisoner they stole upon the tents in the night, when all the inhabitants were asleep, and murdered every soul except herself and three other young women. Her father, mother, and husband, were in the same tent with her, and they were all killed. Her child, of about five months old, she took with her, wrapt in a bundle of her own clothing, undiscovered, in the night. But when she arrived at the place where the Arathapescows had left their

wives; which was not far off, it being then day-break, these Indian women immediately began to examine her bundle, and having there found the child, took it from her and killed it immediately. The relation of this shocking scene only served the savages of my gang for laughter. Her country is so far to the westward, that she says she never saw any iron or other metal till she was taken prisoner; those of her tribe making their hatchets and chisels of deer's horns, and knives of stone and bone; their arrows are shod with a kind of slate, bone, and deer's horns, and their instruments to make their wood work are nothing but beaver's teeth. They have frequently heard of the useful materials that the nations to the east of them are supplied with from the English, but instead of drawing nearer to be in the way of trading for iron work, &c. are obliged to remove farther back to avoid the Arathapescow Indians, as they make surprising slaughter among them every year, both winter and summer."

The Esquimaux, according to Mr. Pennant, are distinguished from the tribes south of them, chiefly by their dress, their canoes, and their instruments of chace. He divides them into two varieties. About Prince William's Sound they are of the largest size. As you advance northward they decrease in height, till they dwindle into the dwarfish tribes, which occupy some of the coasts of the Icy sea, and the maritime parts of Hudson's Bay, of Greenland and Labrador. Their dwarfishness is doubtless occasioned by the scantiness of their provisions, and the severity of their climate. Beyond the 67th deg. N. Lat. according to Capt. Ellis's account, there are no inhabitants. The Arctic countries in America, Asia, and Greenland, if inhabited at all, have very few inhabitants; and those are of the dwarfish kind, scattered on the banks of rivers, lakes, and seas, and subsist miserably upon fish, and the flesh of those animals which inhabit those frozen regions, with the skins of which they clothe themselves.

Mr. Crantz gives it as his opinion, that the Esquimaux came originally from the north-east regions of Great Tartary, between the Icy sea and Mungalia; because he observes a greater affinity between them and the Kalmucks, Tunguses and Kamskadales, who inhabit those regions, than between them and the Laplanders, Samoieds and Ostiaks, who inhabit the north-west parts of Europe, whence, it has generally been conjectured, the Esquimaux migrated. It is his opinion also, that Greenland was settled in the 14th century, from the north-eastern parts of America; for till that period, Greenland appears not to have had any inhabitants. The rout which the first migrants took, he supposes was, first into Tartary, after the dispersion of the nations, thence into Kamtskatka, thence across the strait which separates the two continents; whence they spread themselves unmolested, into the then uninhabited countries round Hudson's Bay, and down as far south as Canada. And here they were found in the 11th century, by the Norwegians, in their Vineland. Afterwards these more southerly regions were conquered by the more numerous and powerful tribes south of the lakes, and the Esquimaux were forced to retire as far north as the 60th deg. N. lat. Here Capt Ellis found the Esquimaux, in his voyage to Hudson's Bay, and discovered that they had the same aspect, dress, boats, hunting and fishing implements, habitations, manners and usages as the Greenlanders.* They are often pursued and hunted by the other Indians, who live about the south and west shores of Hudson's Bay, and who appear to be quite a different people.

The

* One of the Moravian brethren, who understood the Greenland language, made a voyage to Labrador in 1764. On the fourth of September he met about 200 Indians. The first that he spoke to behaved very wild and shy; but when the Indian saw him clad in his own dress, and heard him speak in his own language, he called out to the others with shouts of joy, "Our friend is come." They conducted him further up, to their families,

The newly-discovered American Indians about Nootka Sound disguise themselves after the manner of the ancient Scythians, in dresses made of the skins of wolves and other wild beasts, and wear even the heads fitted to their own. These habits they use in the chase to circumvent the animals of the field.

Concerning the religion of the Indians much has been said, and much that has no foundation. In general it may be said, that they all have an idea of a Supreme Being, whom they worship under different names, and with a great variety of superstitious rites and ceremonies. Some, particularly the nations of the Algonquin language, call their Supreme God, the *Great Hare*; some *Michabou*, and others *Atabocan*. The Being opposed to this *First Spirit*, whom they considered as the Creator and Governor of the world, they style the *Great Tyger*.

The name of the Hurons' Supreme God, or more properly their God of War, is *Areskoui*; of the Iroquois, *Agreskoufe*; but most of the nations south of the Lakes, as far as Louisiana, denominate their Supreme God, the *Great*, the *Good*, or the *Grand Spirit*, to whom they ascribe a kind of omnipresence, and whom they invoke as their guardian. To their evil genii they never address themselves, except to entreat them not to do them any injury; and to appease their wrath they often sacrifice to them. Mr. Kirkland mentions a small lake, which he visited, situated at the foot of a precipice, nearly 50 feet perpendicular height, in the territory of the Six Nations, in which, the old Indians affirm, resided formerly a demon in the shape of a dragon, and that he had been seen frequently to disgorge balls of liquid fire. To appease his wrath, they said, many a sacrifice of tobacco had been made at the lake by the fathers.

NEW DISCOVERIES ON THE NORTH-WEST COAST OF AMERICA.] The country on the North Western part of the Continent of America, bounded by the Pacific ocean, is yet unexplored. We however have several charts of the coast: the latest published, is that, taken by Captains Portlock and Dixon, in a voyage performed in the years 1785, 86, 87, and 88; and from the enterprising genius and repeated voyages of our own countrymen, we expect to be furnished with others much improved. "This vast country, with very little deviation, has the appearance of one continued forest, being covered with pines of a different species, and these intermixed with alder, birch, witch-hazel, &c. besides various kinds of brush-wood: and the valleys and low grounds afford wild currants, gooseberries, raspberries, and various flowering shrubs. On the coast are many islands, spacious bays, commodious harbours and mouths of navigable rivers: among which are, Queen Charlotte's islands,* extending from N. lat. 51° 42' to 54° 18'—W. long. 129° 54' to 133° 18' from Greenwich. Nootka Sound, situated in N. lat. 40° 30'. W. long. 126° 42'. Admiralty bay and port Mulgrave, N. lat. 59° 31'—W. long. 140° 18'. Prince William's Sound, N. lat. 60° 30'—W. long. 147° 30'. Cook's river, N. lat. 59° 30'—W. long. 153° 12'.

This coast is inhabited by numerous but small tribes of Indians; each tribe appears to be independent and governed by its own chief. They differ from each other in their language and customs. The neighbouring tribes are frequently involved in wars with each other. It is impossible to ascertain with any degree of certainty the number of inhabitants; but they have been computed at ten thousand, from Cook's river to

families, and though other Europeans think they risk their lives in being alone with them, they shewed him all imaginable friendship, and rejoiced when he gave them hopes of visiting them the next year; which he did, in company with the Rev. Mr. Drachart, a gentleman well skilled in the Greenland language. He found that the two languages did not differ so much as the high and low Dutch—that their stature, way of living, dress, tents, darts and boats were the same as the Greenlanders.

* Since called Washington Island.

Nootka Sound, an extent of about 1000 miles. Capt. Portlock saw at Cape Edgecomb, several men much marked with the small pox; and was informed that the distemper carried off great numbers of the inhabitants. From what circumstances he could collect, he conjectured it was brought by the Spaniards, who were there in 1775. The natives are for the most part short in stature: their faces, men and women, are in general flat and round, with high cheek bones and flat noses; and their teeth white and regular. Their complexions are lighter than the Southern Indians, and some of their women have rosy cheeks. Both sexes are fond of ornamenting themselves with beads and trinkets, and they generally paint their hands and faces. They have a custom of making a longitudinal slit in the under lip, between the mouth and chin, some of them as large as the mouth, in which they wear a piece of bone, wood, or ivory, fitted with holes in it, from which they suspend beads as low as the chin. They are very fond of masks or visors, and various kinds of caps painted with different devices, such as birds, beasts, fishes, and sometimes representations of the human face. They have likewise many devices carved in wood, which are greatly valued by them. There appears to be a greater uniformity in the dress of the different tribes than in their ornaments. The aperture, or second mouth, above the chin, seems confined to the *men* of Cook's river and Prince William's Sound; whilst the wooden ornament in the under lip is worn by the *women* only, in that part of the coast from port Mulgrave to Queen Charlotte's Islands.—Thieving is a very prevalent inclination among them, which is practised, not only upon strangers, but among themselves. In the course of their trading, they are frequently seen to steal from each other, and on being detected they will give up the articles stolen with a laugh, and immediately appear as unconcerned as if nothing had happened. Their habitations are generally the most wretched that can be conceived; a few poles stuck in the ground, without regularity, loosely covered with bark, constitute their huts, which are quite insufficient to shelter them from the snow and rain, and the insides of their dwellings exhibit a complete picture of filth and indolence. In one corner are thrown the bones and remaining fragments of victuals left at their meals; in another, heaps of fish and putrefied flesh, grease, oil, &c. In short, the whole serves to shew in how wretched a state it is possible for human beings to exist.

They subsist wholly by fishing and hunting. Their clothing is made of the skins of animals and birds; and the probable reason why the Indians take no greater pains in the construction of their habitations, is, that their situation is merely temporary; for no sooner does the master of a tribe find game begin to grow scarce, or fish not so plenty as he expected, than he takes down his hut, puts the boards or barks into his canoe, and paddles away to seek a spot better adapted to his purposes; which having found, he erects his dwelling in the same careless manner as before.

Few or no remarks concerning their religious ceremonies have yet been handed to us; but from the traits already discerned, these cannot be less rude than their other customs.

The chief object of civilized nations in navigating this coast hitherto has been to traffic with the natives for furs; which they give in exchange for pieces of iron, nails, beads, penknives and other trifling trinkets. These furs are carried to China and disposed of to a great profit. The skins obtained are those of the sea otter, racoon, pine-martin, land beaver, earless mammot, &c.

A traffick which in prospect affords such uncommon profit, has induced many citizens of the United States to engage in it; but whether the number of vessels fitted
out

out by other nations has not made a scarcity of furs, and taught the natives to set a higher value on them, experience will determine.

The following statement shews the number of vessels that had arrived at China, from the N. W. coast, to February, 1788, with the number of furs, and their value, viz.

<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Names.</i>	<i>Cpts.</i>	<i>Tons Burden.</i>	<i>Years.</i>	<i>From whence sent.</i>	<i>No. of Furs obtained.</i>	<i>Sold for Doll.</i>
Brig	-	Hanna,	60	-	1785	-	560 S. Otter 20,600
Ditto	-	ibid.	—	-	ibid.	-	400 - - 8,000
Snow, Capt. Cook,		Lovic,	300	}	1786	Bombay, -	600 - - 24,000
Snow, Experiment,		Guise, -	100				
— Nootka,	-	Mears,	-	-	1786	-	Bengal, - 357 - - 14,242
— Imperial Eagle,		Berkley,	-	-	—	-	800 - - 30,000
—	—	—	—	1700	Skins imported by the Spaniards, unfold, valued }		—
Ship	-	Peyrouse,	}	—	—	—	—
Ship	-	De Langle,	}	—	—	—	54,837

What furs the Russians procure is not known, as they never carry them to Canton. From the above sketch it appears that the fur trade has been very lucrative. There are also other articles which might perhaps be procured to advantage, such as ginseng, copper, oil, spars, &c. with great quantities of salmon.

The following extracts from the account of Capt. Cook's discoveries contain much valuable information respecting the N. W. coast of America, and its neighbouring islands.

Having left the Society Islands, Captain Cook proceeded to the northward, crossing the equator on the 22d and 23d of December, 1777; and on the 24th discovered a low uninhabited island about 15 or 20 leagues in circumference. Here the longitude and latitude were exactly determined, by means of an eclipse of the sun. The west side of it, where the eclipse was observed, lies in N. Lat. $1^{\circ} 59'$ E. Lon. $202^{\circ} 30'$. From the time of its discovery it obtained the name of *Christmas Island*. Plenty of turtle were found upon it, and the Captain caused the seeds of the cocoa-nut, yams, and melons, to be planted.

Proceeding still to the northward, our navigator next fell in with five islands, to which he gave the general name of *Sandwich Isles*, in honour of his patron. Their names in the language of the country are Woahoo, Atooi, Oneeheeow, Orechoua, and Tehoora. They are situated in the latitude of $21^{\circ} 30'$ and $22^{\circ} 15'$ North, and between $199^{\circ} 20'$ and $201^{\circ} 30'$ E. Long. The longitude was deduced from no fewer than 72 sets of lunar observations. The largest of these islands is Atooi, and does not in the least resemble the islands of the South Sea formerly visited by our navigators, excepting only that it has hills near the center, which slope gradually towards the sea-side. The only domestic animals found upon it were hogs, dogs, and fowls. Captain Cook designed to have made the inhabitants of this island a present of some others; but being driven out of it by stress of weather, he was obliged to land them upon a smaller one, named *Oneeheeow*. He left a he-goat with two females, and a boar and sow of the English breed, which is much superior to that of the South Sea Islands. He left also the seeds of melons, pumpkins, and onions. The soil of this island seemed in general to be poor: it was observed that the ground was covered with shrubs and plants, some of which had a more delicious fragrance than he had ever experienced before. The inhabitants of these islands are much commended, notwithstanding their horrid custom

of eating human flesh. In every thing manufactured by them there is an ingenuity and neatness in an uncommon degree; and the elegant form and polish of some of their fishing-hooks could not be exceeded by an European artist, even assisted by all his proper tools. From what was seen of their agriculture also, it appeared that they were by no means novices in that art, and that the quantity and goodness of their vegetable productions might with propriety be attributed as much to their skilful culture as to the fertility of the soil. The language of the Sandwich Isles is almost identically the same with that of Otaheite.

Proceeding farther to the northward, our navigator discovered the coast of New Albion, on the 7th of March 1778. Its appearance was very different from that of the countries with which they had hitherto been conversant. The land was full of mountains, the tops of which were covered with snow; while the valleys between them, and the grounds on the sea coast, high as well as low, were covered with trees, which formed a beautiful prospect as of one vast forest. The place where they landed was situated in N. Lat. $74^{\circ} 33'$. E. Long. $235^{\circ} 20'$. At first the natives seemed to prefer iron to every other article of commerce; but at last they showed such a predilection for brass, that scarcely a bit of it was left in the ships, except what belonged to the necessary instruments. It was observed also, that these people were much more tenacious of their property than any of the savage nations that had hitherto been met with, inasmuch that they would part neither with wood, water, grass, nor the most trifling article, without a compensation, and were sometimes very unreasonable in their demands; with which, however, the captain always complied as far as was in his power.

The place where the Resolution was now anchored, was by our navigator called *St. George's Sound*, but he afterwards understood that the natives gave it the name of *Nootka*. Its entrance is situated in the east corner of Hope Bay; in N. Lat. $49^{\circ} 33'$. E. Long. $233^{\circ} 12'$. The climate, as far as they had an opportunity of observing it, was much milder than that on the eastern coast of the American continent in the same parallel of latitude: and it was remarkable that the thermometer, even in the night, never fell lower than 42° , while in the day time it frequently rose to 60° . The trees met with here are chiefly the Canadian pine, white cypress, and some other kinds of pine. There seemed to be a scarcity of birds, which are much harassed by the natives, who ornament their clothes with the feathers, and use the flesh for food. The people are no strangers to the use of metals, having iron tools in general use among them; and Mr. Gore procured two silver spoons, of a construction similar to what may be observed in some Flemish pictures, from a native who wore them round his neck as an ornament. It is most probable that these metals have been conveyed to them by the way of Hudson's Bay and Canada; nor is it improbable that some of them may have been introduced from the north western parts of Mexico.

While Capt. Cooke sailed along this coast, he kept always at a distance from land when the wind blew strongly upon it; whence several large gaps were left unexplored, particularly between the latitudes of 50° and 55° . The exact situation of the supposed straits of Anian was not ascertained, though there is not the least doubt, that if he had lived to return by the same way in 1779, he would have examined every part with his usual accuracy. On departing from Nootka Sound, our navigator first fell in with an island in N. lat. $59^{\circ} 49'$. E. long. $216^{\circ} 58'$ to which he gave the name of *Kay's Island*. Several others were discovered in the neighbourhood; and the ship came to an anchor in an inlet named by the Captain *Prince William's Sound*. Here he had an opportunity of making several observations on the inhabitants, as well as on the nature

of the country. From every thing relative to the former, it was concluded, that the inhabitants were of the same race with the Esquimaux or Greenlanders. The animals were much the same with those met with at Nootka, and a beautiful skin of one animal, which seemed to be peculiar to the place, was offered for sale. Mr. Anderson was inclined to think that it was the same to which Mr. Pennant has given the name of the *casan marmot*. The alcedo, or great king's fisher, was found here, having very fine and bright colours. The humming bird also came frequently, and flew about the ship while at anchor; though it is scarce to be supposed that it can live throughout the winter, on account of the extreme cold. The water fowl were in considerable plenty; and there is a species of diver which seemed to be peculiar to the place. Almost the only kinds of fish met with in the place were torsk and halibut. The trees were chiefly the Canadian and spruce pines, some of which were of a considerable height and thickness. The Sound is judged by Captain Cook to occupy a degree and a half of latitude, and two of longitude, exclusively of its arms and branches, which were not explored. There was every reason to believe that the inhabitants had never been visited by any European vessel before; but our navigator found them in possession not only of iron but of beads, which, it is probable, are conveyed to them across the continent from Hudson's Bay.

Soon after leaving Prince William's Sound, our navigator fell in with another inlet, which it was expected would lead either to the northern sea or to Hudson's or Baffin's bay; but upon examination it was found to end in a large river. This was traced for 210 miles from the mouth, as high as N. lat. $61^{\circ} 30'$, and promises to vie with the most considerable ones already known, as it lies open by means of its various branches to a very considerable inland communication. As no name was given by our commander to this river, it was ordered by Lord Sandwich to be named *Cook's River*. The inhabitants seemed to be of the same race with those of Prince William's Sound; and like them had glass beads and knives; they were also clothed in very fine furs; so that it seemed probable that a valuable fur trade might be carried on from that country. Several attempts have accordingly been made from the British settlements in the East Indies to establish a traffic of that kind; but little benefit accrued from it, except to the proprietors of the first vessel, her cargo having greatly lowered the price of that commodity in the Chinese market. It must be observed, that on the western side of the American continent, the only valuable skins met with are those of the sea otter; those of the other animals, especially foxes and martins, being of an inferior quality to such as are met with in other parts.

Proceeding farther to the northward our navigator now fell in with a race of people who had evidently been visited by the Russians, and seemed to have adopted from them some improvements in dress, &c. In the prosecution of this part of their voyage, it appeared that they had been providentially conveyed in the dark through a passage so dangerous, that our commander would not have ventured upon it in the day time. They were now got in among those islands which had lately been discovered by Capt. Beering and other Russian navigators, and came to an anchor in a harbour of Oonalashka, situated in N. lat. $53^{\circ} 55'$ E. long. $193^{\circ} 30'$. Here it was remarked, that the inhabitants had as yet profited very little by their intercourse with the Russians; so that they did not even dress the fish they used for their food, but devoured them quite raw.

From Oonalashka our navigator proceeded again towards the continent, which he continued to trace as far as possible to the northward. In the latitude of $54^{\circ} 48'$ E. long. $195^{\circ} 45'$ N. lat. is a volcano of the shape of a perfect cone, having the crater at the

very summit. On the coast farther to the north the soil appears very barren, producing neither tree nor shrub, though the lower grounds are not destitute of grass and some other plants. To a rocky point of considerable height situated in N. lat. $58^{\circ} 42'$. E. long $197^{\circ} 36'$. our commander gave the name of *Cape Newnham*.

Here Mr. Anderson, the surgeon of the Resolution, died of a consumption, under which he had laboured for more than twelve months. Soon after he had breathed his last, land being seen at a distance, it was named *Anderson's Island*; and on the 9th of August the ship anchored under a point of the continent which he named *Cape Prince of Wales*. This is remarkable for being the most westerly point of the American continent hitherto known. It is situated in N. lat. $65^{\circ} 46'$. E. long. $191^{\circ} 45'$. It is only 39 miles distant from the eastern coast of Siberia; so that our commander had the pleasure of ascertaining the vicinity of the two continents to each other, which had only been imperfectly done by the Russian navigators. Setting sail from this point next day, he steered to the west and north, when he soon fell in with the country of the Tichutski, which had been explored by Beering in 1728. Here he had an opportunity of correcting M. Stæhlin's map, who had placed in these seas an imaginary island, on which he bestowed the name of *Alasibka*. Being convinced that the land he had now reached was part of the Asiatic continent, our commander directed his course eastward, in order to fall in with that of America; and on the 17th reached the latitude of $70^{\circ} 33'$. and E. long. $179^{\circ} 41'$. Here they began to perceive that brightness in the horizon called by the mariners the *blink of the ice*; and in $70^{\circ} 41'$ they had got quite up to it, so that no farther progress could be made. Next day they made a shift to get as far as $70^{\circ} 44'$, but the ice was now as compact as a wall, and about ten or twelve feet in height. Its surface was extremely rugged, and farther to the northward appeared much higher. Its surface was covered with pools of water, and great numbers of sea-lions lay upon it, whose flesh they were now glad to use as food. Our commander continued to traverse the Icy Sea till the 29th, but the obstructions becoming every day greater and greater, it was thought proper to give over all further attempts of finding a passage to Europe for that year. He did not, however, omit the investigation of the Asiatic and American coasts, until he had fully ascertained the accuracy of Captain Beering's accounts as far as he went, and corrected the errors of M. Stæhlin. Great additions were thus made to the geographical knowledge of this part of the globe. From Beering's straits he sailed for Oonalashka, where he arrived on the 2d of October, and staid for some time in order to repair his ships. While the carpenters were employed in this work, one third of the people had permission to go on shore by turns, in order to gather berries, with which the island abounds, and which, though now beginning to decay, were of great service, in conjunction with the spruce beer, to preserve the people from the scurvy. With regard to the natives of Oonalashka, they are to appearance the most inoffensive and peaceable people in the world, not to be in a state of civilization; though perhaps this may be owing in some measure to the connection they have long had with the Russians. From the affinity observed between the language of the Esquimaux, Greenlanders, and those of Norton's Sound, in N. lat. $64^{\circ} 55'$, there is great reason to believe, that all those nations are of the same extraction; and if that be the case, there is little reason to doubt, that a communication, by sea, exists between the eastern and western sides of the American continent; which, however, may probably be shut up by ice in the winter time, or even for the most part throughout the year.

The following information respecting the N. West coast of America is extracted from the journal of Mr. John Cordis of Charlestown, Massachusetts, second officer of the snow *Eleanora*, from Boston.

On the 30th of August, 1789, Mr. Cordis, at *Washington Island*, left the sloop *Washington*, which was commanded by Captain Kendrick, and went on board the snow *Eleanora*, commanded by Captain Simeon Metcalf.

Captain Cook, when he passed this island, supposed it to be a part of the continent, as the weather at the time was thick, and the wind boisterous, which obliged him to keep at sea, till he made the western cape of the continent in about lat. 55° . Captain Gray, in the sloop *Washington*, first discovered it to be an island, and gave it the name of *WASHINGTON*. To a harbour, about the middle of the island, he gave the name of *Barrel's Inlet*, in honour of Joseph Barrel, Esq. of Boston. Another harbour, whose entrance is in lat. $52^{\circ} 12'$ N. lon. 136° W. they called *Clinton's Harbour*, in honor of Governor Clinton of New York.

On the continent opposite the island is a convenient harbour, with a muddy bottom, which they called *Cordis's Cove*. The island has many excellent harbours.

This island is about 100 miles in length, from S. E. to N. W. and about 30 in breadth. The southernmost point is in about lat. $51^{\circ} 50'$ N. lon. 135° W.

It is composed principally of irregular mountains, the tops of which, even in summer, are covered with snow. It abounds with spruce, pine, and cedar trees. Among other animals on this island, are the bear, deer, dog, seal, and sea otter; of the latter are great numbers, whose skins are of a most beautiful black, intermixed with white hair, and their fur is extremely fine and delicate.

The number of inhabitants on this island, Mr. Cordis conjectures, is between ten and eleven thousand. He calculates thus—One of the chiefs informed him that he possessed six large canoes, or as they call them, *Lux Chepotts*, which would carry upwards of 50 men each; and his tribe was large enough to man them all. There were seventeen other chiefs, he said, beside himself, on the island; each of whom had nearly the same number of men; hence he concludes, that upon a moderate calculation each tribe contains 600 souls; and the whole island about ten thousand eight hundred.

The natives of this island are in general well made, robust, active, and athletic; and of a larger size than those on the opposite continent, and of a lighter complexion. Their hair is very harsh and long, and tied back with a piece of red cedar bark. The women have a very singular mode of ornamenting, or rather of disfiguring themselves, by making, when very young, a small hole in the under lip, and putting in a small piece, or plug of wood, for the purpose of keeping it distended. By frequently increasing the size of this plug, as they advance in age, by the time they are five and twenty, the hole becomes large enough to contain a piece of wood two inches long, and about an inch wide, the upper part of which is dug out in the form of a spoon, which serves both for ornament and use, as it is used at their meals to contain the oil for their fish. This custom, however, is not general throughout the island. Their war implements, which they have frequent occasion to use, some or other of the tribes being almost perpetually at war, are spears about 15 feet long, with the ends pointed with shells or stone, and bows and arrows. The iron which they obtain in traffic is immediately converted into ornaments for the neck, and into knives. Their mode of working it could not be discovered. It is a custom in some of the tribes, when a prisoner offends them, for the chiefs to kill and eat him. Mr. Cordis was an eye-witness to one instance of this kind, as he found a piece of human flesh, with an Indian woman, the wife of a chief, of which she ate, and appeared to be fond. Their common diet is dried fish and their spawn, mixed with a large quantity of fish oil. They sometimes, when they have no fire near, eat small fish raw, just as they are taken from the water.

Their habitations are small huts of a triangular form, constructed of poles, and the bark of cedar trees, with a small hole for a door. They frequently remove from place to place as the fish go up or down the river. The men are extremely jealous of their wives, but chastity is not among the virtues of the young unmarried women. Both men and women generally paint themselves red or black, every morning. Their dress consists of skins thrown over their shoulders, and tied round their necks with a leathern thong; the rest part of their bodies is entirely naked, except the women, who sometimes, but not always, have a skin fastened round their waist.

Their method of disposing of their dead is very singular. They put the corpse into a square box; if the box happens to be too small for the body, they cut off the head, or other parts of it, which they put into the vacant places. This being done, the box is secured by having several mats wound round it, and then is hoisted into the top of the highest tree in the neighbourhood, where it is fastened and left till the box decays and drops in pieces. Though frequently asked, they would not tell their reasons for this custom.

The manner of treating the dead, on the continent opposite the island, is somewhat different. They put the dead body into a square box, when it has become a little putrefied, and secure it well with cords. After this the relations of the deceased seat themselves on the box, and with an instrument made of a shell, cut their faces till they are covered with blood, speaking all the while in a loud and melancholy tone. This ceremony being over, they wash themselves, and return to the company with great gaiety. The corpse is then put under a great tree, and covered with mats and earth, and left to be devoured by wild beasts.

It has been conjectured by navigators upon this coast, that there is, some where between the latitudes of 50 and 60 degrees, a passage through the continent, from the Pacific ocean, into Hudon's Bay. Mr. Cordis, by order of Capt. Metcalf, explored a large strait, to the eastward of Washington Island, running up N. E. into the country. On the 24th of September 1789, he left the ship, and in the yawl, with six men, proceeded N. N. E. about 25 miles up the strait, where he found it about 3 miles wide. The land on each side was mountainous and woody, and bears and wolves were heard during the night. Continuing his course next day, N. N. E. till ten o'clock A. M. he found the strait to lead north, and to be much narrower. He kept on the eastern shore, till 2 o'clock P. M. when the strait opened wider to the N. E. The next day he proceeded upwards of 40 miles, N. E. and N. N. E. where he found the strait much wider than any part he had passed, except the entrance. The time to which he was limited being now expired, and his provisions short, he returned on board, strongly impressed, however, with the opinion that this strait communicated with Hudon's Bay, or with some of the waters of the Atlantic Ocean.

In January, 1790, Capt. Metcalf visited the Sandwich Islands. The principal of these Islands, *Owhyhee*, according to Mr. Cordis's reckoning, lies in $19^{\circ} 50' N.$ lat. and $154^{\circ} 50' W.$ or in $205^{\circ} 20' E.$ long. from Greenwich. The natives of these islands are, generally speaking, stout, vigorous, and active, and by being almost constantly in the water, seem to be nearly amphibious. They are of a light copper colour, with black hair. The women have a custom of anointing themselves with an ointment which gives them a yellowish appearance.

They have two kinds of canoes, the single and the double. The former are about 30 feet long and two and a half broad; and to prevent their overturning, have an out-rigger which projects 5 feet from the canoe. The latter, are two canoes, connected by arched timbers, passing from the gunwale of one to the gunwale of the other, and

and are about three feet apart ; some of these double canoes are above 80 feet in length, and will contain as many men. The paddles of these canoes are about 5 feet long, and the part which goes into the water 15 inches broad ; with these they will paddle at the rate of 6 miles an hour.

These islands produce sugar canes, potatoes, cocoa nuts, bread fruit, plantains, water melons, yams, and a root they call *tea*, which is of a sweetish taste, not disagreeable. It is about the bigness of a man's arm and nearly as long. They have also a root which they call *ava*. With its juice they often get intoxicated, or rather stupefied. Those who make a free use of it, when they become old, have a scaly appearance not unlike the leprosy. These islands abound with hogs, which are large and good. Dogs are considered by the chiefs as a delicate dith, and are fed with great care for their use. A few dunghill fowls were also found on these islands, which, probably, were left here by some ship, not many years since.

The only valuable wood on these islands, is what is called *sandle* wood, which is of a yellowish colour, and has a most agreeable smell. It is much esteemed by the Chinese, who burn it in their churches. They have another species of wood, not unlike the *lignum vitæ*, with which they make their spears, which are from ten to twelve feet in length. These spears, with the knife, which is made of a small piece of wood, and on both sides stuck full of sharks' teeth, appear to be their only instruments of war.

The island of O-why-hee is nearly twenty leagues in circumference, and contains upwards of 30,000 inhabitants, under the arbitrary government of one chief.

A SUMMARY ACCOUNT of the first DISCOVERY and SETTLEMENT of
NORTH AMERICA, arranged in chronological order.

NORTH AMERICA was discovered in the reign of Henry VII. a period when the arts and sciences had made very considerable progress in Europe. Many of the first adventurers were men of genius and learning, and were careful to preserve authentic records of such of their proceedings as would be interesting to posterity. These records afford ample documents for American historians. Perhaps no people on the globe can trace the history of their origin and progress with so much precision, as the inhabitants of North America ; particularly that part of them who inhabit the territory of the United States.

The fame which Columbus had acquired by his first discoveries on this western continent, spread through Europe, and inspired many with the spirit of enterprise. 1495.] As early as 1495, four years only after the first discovery of America, John Cabot, a Venetian, obtained a grant or commission from Henry VII. to discover unknown lands and annex them to the crown.*

In the spring of 1496 he sailed from England with two ships, carrying with him his three sons. In this voyage, which was intended for China, he fell in with the north side of Terra Labrador, and coasted northerly as far as the 67th degree of latitude.

1497.] The next year he made a second voyage to America with his son Sebastian, who afterwards proceeded in the discoveries which his father had begun. On the 24th

* See Hazard's "Historical Collections," page 9. Vol. I. where this grant is recited at large. It is dated A. D. 1495.

of June he discovered Bonavista, on the north-east side of Newfoundland. Before his return he traversed the coast from Davis's straits to Cape Florida.

1502.] Sebastian Cabot was this year at Newfoundland; and on his return, carried three of the natives of that island to King Henry VII.

1513.] In the spring of 1513, John Ponce sailed from Porto Rico northerly, and discovered the continent in $30^{\circ} 8'$ north latitude. He landed in April, a season when the country around was covered with verdure, and in full bloom. This circumstance induced him to call the country FLORIDA, which, for many years, was the common name for North and South America.

1516.] In 1516, Sir Sebastian Cabot and Sir Thomas Pert, explored the coast as far as Brazil in South America.

This vast extent of country, the coast of which was thus explored, remained unclaimed and unsettled by any European power, (except by the Spaniards in South America) for almost a century from the time of its discovery.

1524.] It was not till the year 1524 that France attempted discoveries on the American coast. Stimulated by his enterprising neighbours, Francis I. who possessed a great and active mind, sent John Verazano, a Florentine, to America, for the purpose of making discoveries. He traversed the coast from latitude 28° to 50° north. In a second voyage, some time after, he was lost.

1525.] The next year Stephen Gomez, the first Spaniard who came upon the American coast for discovery, sailed from Groyu in Spain, to Cuba and Florida, thence northward to Cape Razo, in latitude 46° north, in search of a northern passage to the East Indies.

1534.] In the spring of 1534, by the direction of Francis I. a fleet was fitted out at St. Malo's in France, with design to make discoveries in America. The command of this fleet was given to James Cartier.* He arrived at Newfoundland in May of this year; thence he sailed northerly; and on the day of the festival of St. Lawrence, he found himself in about latitude $48^{\circ} 30'$ north, in the midst of a broad gulf, which he named St. Lawrence. He gave the same name to the river which empties into it. In this voyage, he sailed as far north as latitude 51° , expecting in vain to find a passage to China.

1535.] The next year he sailed up the river St. Lawrence 300 leagues, to the great and swift *Fall*. He called the country New France; built a fort, in which he spent the winter, and returned in the following spring to France.

1539.] On the 12th of May, 1539, Ferdinand de Soto, with 900 men, besides seamen, sailed from Cuba, having for his object the conquest of Florida. On the 30th of May he arrived at Spirito Santo, from whence he travelled northward to the Chickasaw country, in about latitude 35° or 36° . He died and was buried on the bank of Mississippi River, May, 1542, aged 42 years. Alverdo succeeded him.

1542.] In 1542, Francis la Roche, Lord Robewell, was sent to Canada, by the French king, with three ships and 200 men, women, and children. They wintered here in a fort which they had built, and returned in the spring. About the year 1550, a large number of adventurers sailed for Canada, but were never after heard of. In 1598, the king of France commissioned the Marquis de la Roche to conquer Canada, and other countries not possessed by any Christian prince. We do not learn, however,

* In Hazard's Historical Collections, Vol. I. page 19, is a commission from Francis I. to James Cartier or Quartier, for making an establishment in Canada, dated Oct. 17, 1540. Probably this commission was given him in consequence of his former discoveries.

that la Roche ever attempted to execute his commission, or that any further attempts were made to settle Canada during this century.

[*January 6, 1548-49.*] This year king Henry VII. granted a pension for life to Sebastian Cabot, in consideration of the important services he had rendered to the kingdom by his discoveries in America.* Very respectable descendants of the Cabot family now live in the commonwealth of Massachusetts.

[*1562.*] The admiral of France, Chatillon, early in this year, sent out a fleet under the command of John Ribalt. He arrived at Cape Francis on the coast of Florida, near which, on the first of May, he discovered and entered a river, which he called May river. It is more than probable that this river is the same which we now call St. Mary's, which forms a part of the southern boundary of the United States. As he coasted northward he discovered eight other rivers, one of which he called Port Royal, and sailed up it several leagues. On one of the rivers he built a fort and called it *Charles*, in which he left a colony under the direction of Captain Albert. The severity

of Albert's measures excited a mutiny, in which, to the ruin of the colony, he
[*1564.*] was slain. Two years after, Chatillon sent Rene Laudonier with three ships to Florida. In June he arrived at the river *May*, on which he built a fort, and, in honour to his king, Charles IX. he called it CAROLINA.

In August, this year, Capt. Ribalt arrived at Florida the second time, with a fleet of seven vessels, to recruit the colony, which, two years before, he had left under the direction of the unfortunate Capt. Albert.

The September following, Pedro Melandes, with six Spanish ships, pursued Ribalt up the river on which he had settled, and overpowered him in numbers, cruelly massacred him and his whole company. Melandes, having in this way taken possession of the country, built three forts, and left them garrisoned with 1200 soldiers. Laudonier and his colony on May River, receiving information of the fate of Ribalt, took the alarm and escaped to France.

[*1567.*] A fleet of three ships was this year sent from France to Florida, under the command of Dominique de Gourges. The object of this expedition was to dispossess the Spaniards of that part of Florida which they had cruelly and unjustifiably

[*1568.*] seized three years before. He arrived on the coast of Florida, April 1568, and soon after made a successful attack upon the forts. The recent cruelty of Melandes and his company excited revenge in the breast of Gourges, and roused the unjustifiable principle of retaliation. He took the forts, put most of the Spaniards to the sword, and having burned and demolished all their fortresses, returned to France. During the 50 years next after this event, the French enterprized no settlements in America.

[*1576.*] Capt. Frobisher was sent this year to find out a north-west passage to the East Indies. The first land which he made on the coast was a cape, which, in honour to the queen, he called *Queen Elizabeth's Foreland*. In coasting northerly he discovered the straits which bear his name. He prosecuted his search for a passage into the western ocean, till he was prevented by the ice, and then returned to England.†

[*June 11th, 1578.*] In 1578, Sir Humphrey Gilbert obtained a patent from queen Elizabeth, for lands not yet possessed by any Christian prince, provided he would take possession within six years. With this encouragement he sailed for America, and

* Hazard's Hist. Coll. Vol. I. page 23. Hackluyt calls this "The large pension granted by K. Edward VI. to Sebastian Cabot, constituting him Grand Pilot of England.

† Hazard's Historical Collection, Vol. I. page 23.

1583.] on the first of August, 1583, anchored in Conception Bay. Afterwards he discovered and took possession of St. John's Harbour, and the country south of it. In pursuing his discoveries he lost one of his ships on the shoals of Sablon, and on his return home, a storm overtook him, in which he was unfortunately lost, and the intended settlement was prevented.

1584.] This year two patents were granted by queen Elizabeth, one to Adrian Gilbert, (Feb. 6.) the other to Sir Walter Raleigh (Mar. 25.) for lands not possessed by any Christian prince.* By the direction of Sir Walter, two ships were fitted and sent out under the command of Philip Amidas, and Arthur Barlow, with 107 passengers. In June 1585 they arrived on the coast, and anchored in a harbour seven leagues west of the Roanoke. This colony returned to England in June, 1586. On the 13th of July, they, in a formal manner, took possession of the country, and, in honour of their virgin queen Elizabeth, they called it *Virginia*. Till this time the country was known by the general name of *Florida*. After this VIRGINIA became the common name for all North America.

1586.] This year, Sir Walter Raleigh sent Sir Richard Greenville to America, with seven ships. He arrived at Wococon harbour in June. Having stationed a colony of more than an hundred people at Roanoke, under the direction of Capt. Ralph Lane, he coasted north-easterly as far as Chesapeak Bay, and returned to England.

The colony under Capt. Lane endured extreme hardships, and must have perished, had not Sir Francis Drake fortunately returned to Virginia, and carried them to England, after having made several conquests for the queen in the West Indies and other places.

A fortnight after, Sir Richard Greenville arrived with new recruits; and although he did not find the colony which he had before left, and knew not but they had perished, he had the rashness to leave 50 men at the same place.

1587.] The year following, Sir Walter sent another company to Virginia, under Governor White, with a charter and twelve assistants. In July he arrived at Roanoke. Not one of the second company remained. He determined, however, to risk a third colony. Accordingly he left 115 people at the old settlement, and returned to England.

This year (Aug. 13.) *Manteo* was baptized in Virginia. He was the first native Indian who received that ordinance in that part of America. He, with Towaye, another Indian, had visited England, and returned home to Virginia with the colony. On the 18th of August, Mrs. Dare was delivered of a daughter, whom she called VIRGINIA. She was born at Roanoke, and was the first English child that was born in North America.

1590.] In the year 1590, Governor White came over to Virginia with supplies and recruits for his colony; but, to his great grief, not a man was to be found. They had all miserably famished with hunger, or were massacred by the Indians.

1602.] In the spring of this year, Bartholomew Gosnold, with 32 persons, made a voyage to North Virginia, and discovered and gave names to Cape Cod, Martha's Vineyard, and Elizabeth Islands, and to Dover Cliff. Elizabeth Island was the place which they fixed for their first settlement. But the courage of those who were to have tarried, failing, they all went on board and returned to England. All the attempts to settle this continent which were made by the Dutch, French, and English, from its

discovery to the present time, a period of 110 years, proved ineffectual. The Spaniards only, of all the European nations, had been successful. There is no account of there having been one European family, at this time, in all the vast extent of coast from Florida to Greenland.

1603.] Martin Pring and William Brown were this year sent by Sir Walter Raleigh, with two small vessels, to make discoveries in North Virginia. They came upon the coast which was broken with a multitude of islands, in latitude $43^{\circ} 30'$ north. They coasted southward to Cape Cod Bay; thence round the Cape into a commodious harbour in latitude $41^{\circ} 25'$ where they went ashore and tarried seven weeks, during which time they loaded one of their vessels with sassafras, and returned to England.

Bartholemew Gilbert, in a voyage to South Virginia, in search of the third colony which had been left there by Governor White, in 1587, having touched at several of the West India Islands, landed near Chesapeak Bay, where, in a skirmish with the Indians, he and four of his men were unfortunately slain. The rest, without any further search for the colony returned to England.

France, being at this time in a state of tranquillity in consequence of the edict of Nantz in favor of the Protestants, passed by Henry IV. (April 1598) and of the peace with Philip, king of Spain and Portugal, was induced to pursue her discoveries in America. Accordingly the king signed a patent * in favor of De Mons, (November 8, 1603)

of all the country from the 40th to the 46th degrees of north latitude, under the 1604.] name of *Acadia*. The next year De Mons ranged the coast from St. Lawrence to Cape Sable, and round to Cape Cod.

1605.] In May 1605, George's Island and Pentecost Harbour were discovered by Capt George Weymouth. In May he entered a large river in latitude $43^{\circ} 20'$, (variation $11^{\circ} 15'$ west,) which Mr. Prince, in his Chronology, supposes must have been Sagadahok; but from the latitude, it was more probably the Piscataqua. Capt. Weymouth carried with him to England five of the natives.

1606.] April 10th this year, James I. by patent, † divided Virginia into two colonies. The *southern*, included all lands between the 34th and 41st degrees of north latitude. This was styled the *first colony*, under the name of South Virginia, and was granted to the London Company. The *northern*, called the second colony, and known by the general name of North Virginia, included all lands between the 38th and 45th degrees north latitude, and was granted to the Plymouth Company. Each of these colonies had a council of thirteen men to govern them. To prevent disputes about territory, the colony which should last place themselves was prohibited to plant within an hundred miles of the other. There appears to be an inconsistency in these grants, as the lands lying between the 38th and 41st degrees are covered by both patents.

Both the London and Plymouth companies enterprized settlements within the limits of their respective grants. With what success will now be mentioned.

Mr. Piercy, brother to the Earl of Northumberland, in the service of the London Company, went over with a colony to Virginia, and discovered Powhatan, now James river. In the mean time the Plymouth company sent Capt. Henry Challons, in a vessel of fifty-five tons, to plant a colony in North Virginia; but in his voyage he was taken by a Spanish fleet and carried to Spain.

1607. } The London company this spring sent Capt. Christopher Newport, with
April 26. } three vessels, to South Virginia. On the 26th of April he entered Chesapeak Bay, and landed, and soon after gave to the most southern point the name of *Cape Henry*,

* Hist. Coll. Vol. I. p. 45.

† Ibid. p. 50.

which it still retains. Having elected Mr. Edward Wingfield president for the *May 13.*] year, they next day landed all their men, and began a settlement on James river, at a place which they called James Town. This is the first town that was *June 22.*] settled by the English in North America. The June following, Capt. Newport sailed for England, leaving with the president one hundred and four persons.

August 22.] In August died Capt. Bartholemew Gosnold, the first projector of this settlement, and one of the council. The following winter James Town was burnt.

During this time, the Plymouth company fitted out two ships under the command of Admiral Rawley Gilbert. They sailed for North Virginia on the 31st of May, with one hundred planters, and Capt. George Popham for their president. They arrived in August and settled about nine or ten leagues to the southward of the mouth of Sagadahok river. A great part of the colony, however, disheartened by the severity of the winter, returned to England in December, leaving their president, Capt. Popham, with only forty-five men.

It was in the fall of this year that the famous Mr. Robinson, with part of his congregation, who afterwards settled at Plymouth in New-England, removed from the north of England to Holland, to avoid the cruelties of persecution, and for the sake of enjoying "purity of worship and liberty of conscience."

This year a small company of merchants at Dieppe and St. Malo's founded Quebec, or rather the colony which they sent built a few huts there, which did not take the form of a town until the reign of Lewis XIV.

1608.] Sagadahok colony suffered incredible hardships after the departure of their friends in December. In the depth of winter, which was extremely cold, their storehouse caught fire and was consumed, with most of their provisions and lodgings. Their misfortunes were increased soon after by the death of their president. Rawley Gilbert was appointed to succeed him.

Lord Chief Justice Popham made every exertion to keep this colony alive, by repeatedly sending them supplies. But the circumstance of his death, which happened this year, together with that of president Gilbert's being called to England to settle his affairs, broke up the colony, and they all returned with him to England.

The unfavourable reports which these first unfortunate adventurers propagated respecting the country, prevented any further attempts to settle North Virginia for several years after.

1609.] The London Company, last year, sent Capt. Nelson, with two ships and one hundred and twenty persons, to James Town; and this year, Capt. John Smith, afterwards president, arrived on the coast of South Virginia, and by sailing up a number of the rivers, discovered the interior country. In September, Capt. Newport arrived with seventy persons, which increased the colony to two hundred souls.

Mr. Robinson and his congregation, who had settled at Amsterdam, removed this year to Leyden; where they remained more than eleven years, till a part of them came over to New-England.

The council for South Virginia having resigned their old commission, * requested and obtained a new one; in consequence of which they appointed Sir Thomas West, Lord De la War, general of the colony; Sir Thomas Gates, his lieutenant; Sir George Somers, admiral; Sir Thomas Dale, high marshall; Sir Ferdinand Wainman, general of the horse; and Capt. Newport, vice-admiral.

* The second Charter of Virginia bears date May 23, 1609. Hist. Coll. Vol. I. p. 58.

June 8.] In June, Sir Thomas Gates, Admiral Newport, and Sir George Somers, with seven ships, a ketch and a pinnace, having five hundred souls on board, *July 24.]* men, women, and children, sailed from Falmouth for South Virginia. In crossing the Bahama Gulf, on the 24th of July, the fleet was overtaken by a violent storm, and separated. Four days after, Sir George Somers ran his vessel ashore on one of the Bermuda Islands, which, from this circumstance, have been called the Somer Islands. The people on board, one hundred and fifty in number, all got safe on shore; and there remained until the following May. The remainder of the fleet arrived at Virginia in August. The colony was now increased to five hundred men. Capt. Smith, then president, a little before the arrival of the fleet, had been very badly burnt by means of some powder which had accidentally caught fire. This unfortunate circumstance, together with the opposition he met with from those who had lately arrived, induced him to leave the colony and return to England; which he accordingly did the last of September. Francis West, his successor in office, soon followed him, and George Piercy was elected president.

1610.] The year following, the South Virginia or London company, sealed a patent to Lord De la War, constituting him Governor and Captain General of South Virginia. He soon after embarked for America with Capt. Argal and one hundred and fifty men in three ships.

The unfortunate people, who, the year before, had been shipwrecked on the Bermuda Islands, had employed themselves during the winter and spring, under the direction of Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, and Admiral Newport, in building a sloop to transport themselves to the continent. They embarked for Virginia on the 10th of May, with about one hundred and fifty persons on board; leaving two of their men behind, who chose to stay; and landed at James Town on the 23d of the same month. Finding the colony, which at the time of Capt. Smith's departure, consisted of five hundred souls, now reduced to sixty, and those few in a distressed and wretched situation, they with one voice resolved to return to England; and for this purpose, on the 7th of June, the whole colony repaired on board their vessels, broke up the settlement, and sailed down the river on their way to their native country.

Fortunately, Lord De la War, who had embarked for James Town the March before, met them the day after they sailed, and persuaded them to return with him to James Town, where they arrived and landed the 10th of June. The government of the colony of right devolved upon Lord De la War. From this time we may date the effectual settlement of Virginia. Its history from this period will be given in its proper place.

As early as the year 1607 and 1608, Henry Hudson, an Englishman, under a commission from King James, in the employ of certain merchants, made several voyages for the discovery of a north-west passage to the East Indies. In 1609, upon some misunderstanding, he engaged in the Dutch service, in the prosecution of the same design, and on his return ranged along the sea coast of what has since been called New England, (which, three years before was granted by King James to his English subjects, the Plymouth Company) and entered Hudson's river, giving it his own name. He ascended this river in his boat as far as what has since been called Aurania or Albany. In 1613, the Dutch West India company sent some persons to this river, to trade with the Indians; and as early as 1623, the Dutch had a trading house on Connecticut river. In consequence of these discoveries and settlements, the Dutch claimed all the country extending from Cape Cod to Cape Henlopen along the sea coast, and as far back into the country as any of the rivers within those limits extend. But their claim

has been disputed. This extensive country, the Dutch called *New Netherlands*, and in 1614 the States General granted a patent to sundry merchants for an exclusive trade on Hudson's river, who the same year, (1614) built a fort on the west side near 1614.] Albany. From this time we may date the settlement of New York, the history of which will be annexed to a description of the State.

Conception Bay, on the island of Newfoundland, was settled in the year 1610, by about forty planters under Governor John Guy, to whom King James had given a patent of incorporation.

Chaplain, a Frenchman, had begun a settlement at Quebec 1608. St. Croix, Mount Mansel, and Port Royal were settled about the same time. These settlements remained undisturbed till 1613, when the Virginians, hearing that the French had settled within their limits, sent Capt. Argal to dislodge them. For this purpose he sailed to Sagadahok, took their forts at Mount Mansel, St. Croix, and Port Royal, with their vessels, ordnance, cattle and provisions, and carried them to James Town in Virginia. Quebec was left in possession of the French.

1614.] This year Capt. John Smith, with two ships and forty-five men and boys, made a voyage to North Virginia, to make experiments upon a gold and copper mine. His orders were, to fish and trade with the natives, if he should fail in his expectations with regard to the mine. To facilitate this business, he took with him *Tantum*, an Indian, perhaps one that Capt. Weymouth carried to England in 1605. In April he reached the island Monahigan in latitude $43^{\circ} 30'$. Here Capt. Smith was directed to stay and keep possession with ten men, for the purpose of making a trial of the whaling business, but being disappointed in this, he built seven boats, in which thirty-seven men made a very successful fishing voyage. In the mean time the Captain himself with eight men only, in a small boat, coasted from Penobscot to Sagadahok, Acocisco, Passataquack, Tragabizanda, now called Cape Ann, thence to Acomac, where he skirmished with some Indians; thence to Cape Cod, where he set his Indian, *Tantum*, ashore, and left him, and returned to Monahigan. In this voyage he found two French ships in the Bay of Massachusetts, who had come there six weeks before, and during that time had been trading very advantageously with the Indians. It was conjectured that there were, at this time, three thousand Indians upon the Massachusetts islands.

In July, Capt. Smith embarked for England in one of the vessels, leaving the other under the command of Capt. Thomas Hunt, to equip for a voyage to Spain. After Capt. Smith's departure, Hunt perfidiously allured twenty Indians (one of whom was *Squanto*, afterwards so serviceable to the English) to come on board his ship at Patuxit, and seven more at Naufit, and carried them to the island of Malaga, where he sold them for twenty pounds each, to be slaves for life. This conduct, which fixes an indelible stigma upon the character of Hunt, excited in the breasts of the Indians such an inveterate hatred of the English, as that, for many years after, all commercial intercourse with them was rendered exceedingly dangerous.

Capt. Smith arrived at London the last of August, where he drew a map of the country, and called it *NEW ENGLAND*. From this time North Virginia assumed the name of *New England*, and the name *Virginia* was confined to the southern colony.

Between the years 1614 and 1620, several attempts were made by the Plymouth Company to settle New England, but by various means they were all rendered ineffectual. During this time, however, an advantageous trade was carried on with the natives.

1617.] In the year 1617, Mr. Robinson and his congregation, influenced by several weighty reasons, meditated a removal to America. Various difficulties inter-

1620.] vened to prevent the success of their designs until the year 1620, when a part of Mr. Robinson's congregation came over and settled at Plymouth. At this time commenced the settlement of New England.

The particulars relating to the first emigrations to this northern part of America, the progress of its settlement, &c. will be given in the history of New England, to which the reader is referred.

In order to preserve the chronological order in which the several colonies, now grown into independent states, were first settled, it will be necessary that I
1621.] should just mention, that the next year after the settlement of Plymouth, Captain John Mason obtained of the Plymouth Council a grant of a part of the
1623.] present State of New Hampshire. Two years after, under the authority of this grant, a small colony fixed down near the mouth of Piscataqua river. From this period we may date the settlement of NEW HAMPSHIRE.

1627.] In 1627, a colony of Swedes and Finns came over and landed at Cape Henlopen; and afterwards purchased of the Indians the land from Cape Henlopen to the Falls of Delaware, on both sides the river, which they called *New Swedeland Stream*. On this river they built several forts, and made settlements.

1628.] On the 19th of March, 1628, the Council for New England sold to Sir Henry Roswell, and five others, a large tract of land lying round Massachusetts Bay. The June following, Capt. John Endicot, with his wife and company, came over and settled at Naumkeag, now called Salem.* This was the first English settlement which was made in MASSACHUSETTS BAY. Plymouth, indeed, which is now included in the commonwealth of Massachusetts, was settled eight years before, but at this time it was a separate colony, under a distinct government; and continued so, until the second charter of Massachusetts was granted by William and Mary in 1691; by which, Plymouth, the province of Main and Sagadahok, were annexed to Massachusetts.

June 13, 1633.] In the reign of Charles the First, Lord Baltimore, a Roman Catholic, applied for, and obtained a grant of a tract of land upon Chesapeake Bay, about one hundred and forty miles long and one hundred and thirty broad. Soon after this, in consequence of the rigour of the laws of England against the Roman Catholics, Lord Baltimore, with a number of his persecuted brethren, came over and settled it, and in honour of Queen Henrietta Maria, they called it MARYLAND.

The first grant of Connecticut was made by Robert, Earl of Warwick, president of
Mar. } the Council of Plymouth, to Lord Say and Seal, to Lord Brook and others,
19th } in the year 1631.† In consequence of several smaller grants made after-
1631.] by the patentees to particular persons, Mr. Fenwick made a settlement at
1635.] the mouth of Connecticut river, and called it *Saybrook*. About the same time

* "Among others who arrived at Naumkeag, were Ralph Sprague, with his brethren, Richard and William, who, with three or four more, by Governor Endicot's consent, undertook a journey through the woods above twelve miles westward, till they came to a neck of land called *Mishawum*, between Mystic and Charles Rivers, full of Indians, named *Aberginians*. Their old Sachem being dead, his eldest son, called by the English, John Sagamore, was chief; a man of gentle and good disposition, by whose free consent they settled here; where they found but one English house thatched and palisadoed, possessed by Thomas Walford, a smith." Prince's Chron. p. 174.

"June 1629, Mr. Thomas Graves removed from Salem to *Mishawum*, and with the Governor's consent called it *Charlestown*. He laid the town out in two acre lots, and built the *Great House*, which afterwards became the house of Public Worship. Mr. Bright, Minister." Ibid. p. 188.

† Hazard's Hist. Coll. p. 318.

1636.] a number of people from Massachusetts Bay came and began settlements at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor, on Connecticut river. Thus commenced the English settlement of CONNECTICUT.

Rhode Island was first settled in consequence of religious persecution. Mr. Roger Williams, who was among those who came early over to Massachusetts, not agreeing with some of his brethren in sentiment, was very unjustifiably banished the colony, and went with twelve others, his adherents, and settled at Providence in 1635. From this beginning arose the colony, now State of RHODE ISLAND.

1664.] On the 20th of March, 1664, Charles the Second granted to the Duke of York, what is now called NEW JERSEY, then a part of a large tract of country, by the name of New Netherland. Some parts of New Jersey were settled by the Dutch as early as about 1615.

1662.] In the year 1662, Charles the Second granted to Edward Earl of Clarendon, and seven others, almost the whole territory of the three Southern States, North and South Carolina and Georgia. Two years after he granted a second 1664.] charter, enlarging their boundaries. The proprietors, by virtue of authority vested in them by their charter, engaged Mr. Locke to frame a system of laws for the government of their intended colony. Notwithstanding these preparations, no effectual settlement was made until the year 1669, (though one was attempted in 1667) 1669.] when Governor Sayle came over with a colony and fixed on a neck of land between Ashley and Cooper rivers. Thus commenced the settlement of CAROLINA, which then included the whole territory between the 29° and 36° 30' North latitude, together with the Bahama Islands, lying between latitude 22° and 27° North.

1681.] The Royal charter for Pennsylvania was granted to William Penn on the 4th March 1681. The first colony came over the next year and settled under 1682.] the proprietor, William Penn, who acted as governor from October 1682, to August 1684. The first assembly in the province of Pennsylvania was held at Chester, on the 4th of December 1682. Thus William Penn, a Quaker, justly celebrated as a great and good man, had the honour of laying the foundation of the present populous and very flourishing STATE of PENNSYLVANIA.

The proprietary government in Carolina was attended with so many inconveniences, and occasioned such violent dissensions among the settlers, that the Parliament of Great Britain was induced to take the province under their immediate care. The proprietors, (except Lord Granville) accepted of £. 22,500 sterling, from the crown for the property and jurisdiction. This agreement was ratified by act of parliament in 1729. A clause in this act reserved to Lord Granville his eighth share of the property and arrears of quit-rents, which continued legally vested in his family till the revolution in 1776. Lord Granville's share made a part of the present State of North Carolina. About the year 1729, the extensive territory belonging to the proprietors was divided into North and South Carolina. They remained separate royal governments until they became independent States.

For the relief of poor indigent people of Great Britain and Ireland, and for the security of Carolina, a project was formed for planting a colony between the rivers Savannah and Altamaha. Accordingly, application being made to King George the Second, he issued letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution the benevolent plan. In honour of the king, who greatly encouraged the plan, they called the new province, GEORGIA. Twenty-one trustees

trustees were appointed to conduct the affairs relating to the settlement of the province. The November following, one hundred and fifteen persons, one of whom was General Oglethorp, embarked for Georgia, where they arrived; and landed at Yamacraw. In exploring the country, they found an elevated pleasant spot of ground on the bank of a navigable river, upon which they marked out a town, and from the Indian name of the river which passed by it, called it Savannah. From this period we may date the settlement of GEORGIA.

The country now called Kentucky, was well known to the Indian traders many years before its settlement. They gave a description of it to Lewis Evans, who 1752.] published his first map of it as early as the year 1752. James Macbride, with 1754.] some others, explored this country in 1754. Colonel Daniel Boone visited it in 1769.

1773.] Four years after, Col. Boone and his family, with five other families, who were joined by forty men from Powle's valley, began the settlement of KENTUCKY, * which is now one of the most growing colonies, perhaps, in the world, and was erected into an independent state, by act of Congress, December 6th, 1790, and received into the Union, June 1st, 1792.

The tract of country called VERMONT, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants considering themselves as in a state of nature, as to civil government, and not within any legal jurisdiction, associated and formed for themselves a constitution of government. Under this constitution, they have ever since continued to exercise all the powers of an independent State. Vermont was not admitted into union with the other states till March 4th, 1791; yet we may 1777.] venture to date her political existence as a separate government, from the year 1777, because, since that time, Vermont has to all intents and purposes been a sovereign and independent State. The first settlement in this state was made at Bennington as early as about 1764.

The extensive tract of country lying north-west of the Ohio River, within the limits of the United States, was erected into a separate *temporary* government, by 1787.] an ordinance of congress passed the 13th of July, 1787.

Thus we have given a summary view of the first discoveries and progressive settlement of North America in their chronological order.

The following recapitulation will comprehend the whole in one view.

<i>Names of places.</i>	<i>When settled.</i>	<i>By whom.</i>
Quebec, -	1608	By the French.
Virginia, -	June 10, 1610	By Lord De la War.
Newfoundland, -	June, 1610	By Governor John Guy.
New York, }	about 1614	By the Dutch.
New Jersey, }		
Plymouth, -	1620	By part of Mr. Robinson's congregation.
New Hampshire, -	1623	By a small English colony near the mouth of Piscataqua river.

* This settlement was made in violation of the Treaty, in 1768, at Fort Stanwix, which expressly stipulates, that this tract of country should be reserved for the western nations to hunt upon, until they and the crown of England should otherwise agree. This has been one great cause of the enmity of those Indian nations to the Virginians. [Col. Morgan.]

N O R T H A M E R I C A.

<i>Names of places.</i>	<i>When settled.</i>	<i>By whom.</i>
Delaware, } - -	1627	By the Swedes and Finns.
Pennsylvania, }		
Massachusetts Bay - -	1628	By Capt. John Endicot and company.
Maryland, - -	1633	By Lord Baltimore, with a colony of Roman Catholics.
Connecticut, - -	1635	By Mr. Fenwick, at Saybrook, near the mouth of Connecticut river.
Rhode Island - -	1635	By Mr. Roger Williams and his persecuted brethren.
New Jersey, - -	1664	Granted to the Duke of York by Charles II. and made a distinct government, and settled some time before this by the English.
South Carolina, - -	1669	By Governor Sayle.
Pennsylvania, - -	1682	By William Penn, with a colony of Quakers.
North Carolina, - -	about 1728	Erected into a separate government, settled before by the English.
Georgia, - -	1732	By General Oglethorp.
Kentucky, - -	1773	By Col. Daniel Boone.
Vermont, - -	about 1764	By Emigrants from Connecticut and other parts of New England.
Territory N.W. of Ohio river. - -	1787	By the Ohio and other companies.

The above dates are from the periods when the first permanent settlements were made.

N O R T H A M E R I C A.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

NORTH AMERICA comprehends all that part of the western continent which lies north of the isthmus of Darien, extending north and south from about the 10th degree north latitude to the north pole; and east and west from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean, between the 45th and 165th degrees west longitude from London. Beyond the 70th degree N. Lat. few discoveries have been made. In July 1779, Capt. Cook proceeded as far as lat. 71°, when he came to a solid body of ice extending from continent to continent.

BAYS, SOUNDS, STRAITS, AND ISLANDS. Of these (except those in the United States, which we shall describe under that head) we know little more than their names. Baffin's Bay, lying between the 70th and 80th degrees N. Lat. is the largest and most northern, that has yet been discovered in North America. It opens into the Atlantic ocean through Baffin's and Davis's Straits, between Cape Chidley, on the Labrador coast

coast, and Cape Farewell. It communicates with Hudson's Bay to the south, through a cluster of islands. In this capacious bay or gulph is James Island, the south point of which is called Cape Bedford; and the smaller islands of Waygate and Disko. Davis's Straits separate Greenland from the American continent, and are between Cape Walsingham, on James Island, and South Bay in Greenland, where they are about 60 leagues broad, and extend from the 67th to the 71st degrees of latitude above Disko island. The most southern point of Greenland is called Cape Farewell.

Hudson's Bay took its name from Henry Hudson, who discovered it in 1610. It lies between 51 and 69 degrees of north latitude. The eastern boundary of the Bay is Terra de Labrador; the northern part has a straight coast, facing the bay, guarded with a line of isles innumerable. A vast bay, called the Archiwinnipy Sea, lies within it, and opens into Hudson's Bay, by means of gulph Hazard, through which the Beluga whales pass in great numbers. The entrance of the bay, from the Atlantic ocean, after leaving, to the north, Cape Farewell and Davis's Straits, is between Resolution isles on the north, and Button's isles, on the Labrador coast, to the south, forming the eastern extremity of Hudson's Straits.

The coasts are very high, rocky and rugged at top; in some places precipitous, but sometimes exhibit extensive beaches. The islands of Salisbury, Nottingham, and Digges are very lofty and naked. The depth of water in the middle of the bay is 140 fathoms. From Cape Churchill to the south end of the bay are regular soundings; near the shore, shallow, with muddy or sandy bottom. To the northward of Churchill, the soundings are irregular, the bottom rocky, and in some parts the rocks appear above the surface at low water.

James's Bay lies at the bottom, or most southern part of Hudson's Bay, with which it communicates, and divides New Britain from South Wales. To the northwestward of Hudson's Bay is an extensive chain of lakes, among which is Lake Menichlich, lat. 61°, long. 105° W. North of this is Lake Dobount, to the northward of which lies the extensive country of the northern Indians. West of these lakes, between the latitudes of 60 and 66 degrees, after passing a large cluster of unnamed lakes, lies the lake or sea Arathapescow, whose southern shores are inhabited by the Arathapescow Indians. North of this, and near the Arctic circle, is Lake Edlande, around which live the Dog-ribbed Indians. Further north is Buffaloe lake, near which, is Copper Mine river, in lat. 72° N. and long. 119° W. of Greenwich. The Copper Mine Indians inhabit this country.

Between Copper Mine river, (which according to Mr. Herne empties into the Northern sea, where the tide rises 12 or 14 feet, and which in its whole course is encumbered with shoals and falls) and the North-west coast of America, is an extensive tract of unexplored country. As you descend from north to south on the western coast of America, just south of the Arctic circle, you come to Cape Prince of Wales, opposite East Cape on the eastern continent; and here the two continents approach nearest to each other. Proceeding southward you pass Norton Sound, Cape Stephen's, Shoalness, Bristol Bay, Prince William's Sound, Cook's River, Admiralty Bay, and Port Mulgrave, Nootka Sound, &c. From Nootka Sound proceeding south, you pass the unexplored country of New Albion, thence to California, and New Mexico.

DIVISIONS OF NORTH AMERICA.

THE vast tract of country, bounded west by the Pacific Ocean, south and east by California, New Mexico, and Louisiana—the United States. Canada and the Atlantic ocean, and extending as far north as the country is habitable (a few scattered English, French, and some other European settlements excepted) is inhabited wholly by various nations and tribes of Indians. The Indians also possess large tracts of country within the Spanish American and British dominions. Those parts of North America not inhabited by Indians, belong (if we include Greenland) to Denmark, Great Britain, the American States, and Spain. Spain claims East and West Florida, and all west of the Mississippi, and south of the northern boundaries of Louisiana, New Mexico and California. Great Britain claims all the country inhabited by Europeans, lying north and east of the United States, except Greenland, which belongs to Denmark. The remaining part is the territory of the Fifteen United States. The particular Provinces and States, are exhibited in the following table :

T A B L E.			
Belong- ing to	Countries, Provinces, and States.	Number of Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.
Denm.	Greenland	10,000	New Herrnhut
	New Britain	unknown	
British Provinces.	Upper Canada	20,000	Kingston, Detroit, Niagara
	Lower Canada }	130,000	Quebec, Montreal
	Cape Breton I. }	1,000	Sidney, Louisburgh
	New Brunswick }		Fredericktown
	Nova Scotia }	35,000	Halifax
	St. John's Isl. } in 1783	5,000	Charlottetown
	Newfoundland Island	7,000	Placentia, St. John's
United States of America.	Vermont	85,539	Windsor, Rutland
	New Hampshire	141,885	Portsmouth, Concord
	Massachusetts }	387,787	Boston, Salem, Newbury Port
	District of Maine }	96,540	Portland, Hallowell
	Rhode Island	68,825	Newport, Providence
	Connecticut	237,946	New Haven, Hartford
	New York	340,120	New York, Albany
	New Jersey	184,139	Trenton, Burlington, Brunswick
	Pennsylvania	434,373	Philadelphia, Lancaster
	Delaware	59,094	Dover, Wilmington, Newcastle
	Maryland	319,728	Annapolis, Baltimore
	Virginia	747,610	Richmond, Petersburg, Norfolk
	Kentucky	73,677	Lexington
	North Carolina	393,751	Newbern, Edenton, Halifax
	South Carolina	249,073	Charleston, Columbia
	Georgia	82,548	Savannah, Augusta
	Territory S. of Ohio	35,691	Abingdon
	Territory N. W. of Ohio	.	Marietta.

Belong- ing to	Countries, Provinces, and States.	Chief Towns.
Span. Provin.	East Florida	Augustine
	West Florida	Pensacola
	Louisiana	New Orleans
	New Mexico	St. Fee
	California	St. Juan
	Mexico, or New Spain	Mexico

G R E E N L A N D.

THIS extensive country properly belongs to neither of the two continents; unless, as seems probable, it be united to America to the northward of Davis' Straits. As it has commonly been described as belonging to Europe, we shall give Guthrie's account of it in our description of that quarter of the Globe. From its contiguity to, and probable union with the American continent, however, it appears most proper to rank it among the countries of the western continent; and we have accordingly given it a place in the table of divisions of N. America, and shall here give a new description of it from the best authorities extant.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.] Greenland is bounded by Davis' Straits, which divide it from America, on the west; to the northward, it is not limited, except by some unknown ocean, or by the North pole; east, it has the Icy sea, and a strait which separates it from Iceland; south-east, it is washed by the Atlantic ocean; south, it terminates in a point called Cape Farewell, in latitude 59 degrees north. From Cape Farewell, north-easterly, along the south-east shore, the coast has been discovered as far as 80 degrees north, and along the western shore, up Davis' Straits, as far as the 78th degree.

Whether Greenland be an island, has not yet been decided, as no ship has yet penetrated higher than the 78th degree, on account of the ice. That it is not an island, but a part of the American continent, is rendered probable; 1st. Because Davis' Straits,* or rather Baffin's Bay, grows narrower and narrower towards the 78th degree north. 2d. Because the coast, which in other places is very high towards the sea, grows lower and lower northward. 3d. The tide, which at Cape Farewell, and as far up as Cockin's Sound, in latitude 65°, rises 18 feet at the new and full moon, decreases to the northward of Disko, so that in latitude 70° it rises little more than 8 feet, and probably continues to diminish, till there is no tide at all.† To the above may be added the relation of the Greenlanders, (which however cannot be much depended on) viz. that the strait contracts itself so narrow at last, that they can go on

* These straits were first discovered by John Davis, an Englishman, in 1585, in his attempt to find a north-west passage to the East Indies.

† See "Ellis' Voyage to Hudson's Bay for the Discovery of the N. W. Passage." p. 50 to 54. From the reasons above, the English Capt. Baffin gave up all hope of finding a passage into the South Sea, through Davis' Straits, and consequently concludes that Greenland joins America.

the ice so near to the other side as to be able to call to the inhabitants, and that they can strike a fish on both sides at once; but that there runs such a strong current from the north into the strait, that they cannot pass it.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The western coast, which is washed by Davis' Straits, is high, rocky, barren land, which rears its head, in most places close to the sea, in lofty mountains and inaccessible cliffs, and meets the mariner's eye 40 leagues at sea. All these, except the excessively steep and slippery rocks, are constantly covered with ice and snow, which has also, in length of time, filled all the elevated plains, and many valleys, and probably increases yearly. Those rocks and cliffs, which are bare of snow, look, at a distance, of a dark brown, and quite naked as to any kind of growth; but by a nearer inspection, they are found to be interspersed with many veins of variegated colours of stone, here and there spread over with a little earth and turf.

POPULATION.] Most of the Greenlanders live to the southward of the 62d degree of N. latitude, or as the inhabitants are wont to say, in the south; but no Europeans live there, so that these parts are but little known. The European colonies have fixed themselves to the northward of latitude 62°.

Formerly the western part of Greenland was inhabited by some thousands of Indians; but the small pox, in 1733, almost depopulated this country, which is the finest part of Greenland.

A factor, who lived many years in the country, and whose accuracy, as far as the subject will admit, may be depended on, found, in the compass of 40 leagues, which was the circle of his dealings, 957 souls, constant residents, besides occasional visitors. This part of Greenland is the most populous, except Disko Bay, (which is the best place for trade) and the southern parts. In other places, a person may travel 60 miles and not meet with a single person. Suppose, however, that the country is inhabited for the space of 400 leagues, and that there are 1000 souls for every 40 leagues, the amount would be 10,000. The above-mentioned factor thinks that there are not more than 7000, because there are so many desert places. He asserts, indeed, that the native Greenlanders, in 1730, amounted to 30,000; and when he made his first calculation in 1746, there were still 20,000. Consequently since that time their number has diminished at least one half.

CURIOSITIES.] The astonishing mountains of ice in this country may well be reckoned among its greatest curiosities. Twelve leagues from the colony at Good Hope, lies the famous Ice-glance, called in some charts *Eis-blink*. It is a large high field of ice, whose glance in the air may be seen for many leagues at sea, resembling the Aurora Borealis. The mouth of an inlet, four leagues north of the colony, is blocked up in such a manner, by many large pieces of ice driven out by the ebb, that it forms a phenomenon like an arched ice bridge, stretching from land to land, eight leagues in length, and two in breadth. The openings or arches of it are computed to be from 14 to 40 yards high. People might pass through them in boats, if they were not afraid of the broken fragments of ice that often fall from the top and sides of the arches. Places are found here where Greenland houses once stood, which proves that the mouth of this harbour was once open.

Nothing can exhibit a more dreadful, and at the same time a more dazzling appearance, than those prodigious masses of ice that surround the whole coast in various forms, reflecting a multitude of colours from the sun beams, and calling to mind the enchanting scenes of romance. Such prospects they yield in calm weather, but when the wind begins to blow, and the waves to rise in vast billows, the violent shocks of those pieces of ice dashing against one another fill the mind with horror.

The ice mountains are pieces of ice floating in the sea, of an amazing size, and of very curious forms: some have the appearance of a church or castle, with square or pointed turrets; others, of a ship under sail; and people have often given themselves fruitless toil to go on board and pilot the imaginary ship into harbour; others look like large islands, with plains, vallies, and hills, which often rear their heads 200 yards above the level of the sea. In Disko Bay, on a ground which the whale fishers say is 300 fathoms deep, several such ice mountains have stood fast for many years, one of which they call the city Harlem, and another Amsterdam. This ice for the most part, is very hard, clear, and transparent as glass, of a pale green colour, and some pieces sky blue—but if you melt it and let it freeze again it becomes white.

TIDES, SPRINGS, AND RIVERS.] The tide flows from south to north, and rises in common three fathoms in the south; two, at Good Hope, and one at Disko, and continues to decrease as you proceed north. It is remarkable that the wells and springs in the country rise and fall, in exact conformity to the waxing and waning of the moon, or the ebbing and flowing of the tides. In winter, especially, when all is covered over with ice and snow, new and brisk fountains of water rise at spring tides, and disappear again in places where there is commonly no water, and which are elevated far above the level of the sea.

This country, in general, is not so well supplied with water as the hilly countries in warmer regions. Most of the springs which afford clear and wholesome water have no other supply than the melted and imbibed snow water. In the vallies, large ponds are thinly interspersed, which are fed by the ice and snow distilling from the mountains. The little streams from the hills, called salmon elves, are not so considerable as the hill waters in more southern latitudes.

The country does not admit of large rivers. The vallies are not long, for the mountains presently shoot up aloft, and are covered with perpetual ice, which melts very little, and of course affords the springs but a scanty supply. Many springs are therefore dry in summer, and in the winter are arrested by the frost. Men and beasts would then die of thirst, if a wise Providence had not ordered, that in the hardest winter, rains and thaws sometimes happen, when the filtrated snow water gathers in pools under the ice, and is thence taken by the inhabitants.

AIR AND SEASONS.] As this country is covered, in most places, with everlasting ice and snow, it is easy to imagine that it must be extremely cold. In those places where the inhabitants enjoy the visits of the sun for an hour or two in a day in winter, the cold is tolerable, though even then strong liquors will freeze, when out of the warm rooms. But where the sun entirely forsakes the horizon, while people are drinking tea, the emptied cup will freeze on the table. Mr. Paul Edge, in his Journal of January 7th, 1738, records the following effects of cold at Disko: “The ice and hoar frost reaches through the chimney to the stove’s mouth, without being thawed by the fire in the day time. Over the chimney is an arch of frost with small holes, through which the smoke discharges itself. The door and walls are as if they were plastered over with frost, and, which is scarcely credible, beds are often frozen to the bedstead. The linen is frozen to the drawers. The upper eider-down-bed and the pillows are quite stiff with frost an inch thick, from the breath. The flesh barrels must be hewn in pieces to get out the meat.”

The most severe cold commences in January, and is so piercing in February and March, that the stones split, and the sea reeks like an oven, especially in the bays. When this *frost smoke*, as it is called, is wasted into the colder atmosphere, it freezes
into

into little icy particles, which are driven by the wind, and create such a keen cold on the land, that one can scarcely leave the house without being frozen.

We may fix the limits of their summer from the beginning of May to the end of September; for during these five months the natives encamp in tents. The ground however is not thawed till June, and then only on the surface, and till then, it does not entirely leave off snowing. In August it begins to snow again, but the permanent snows do not fall till October. In the long summer days, the weather is so hot as to oblige the inhabitants to throw off their warm garments. The heat, in a clear sunshine upon the open sea, has been known to be so great, as to melt the pitch on the sides of a ship.

In summer there is no night in this country. Beyond the 66th degree, in the longest days, the sun does not set; and at Good Hope, in latitude 64°, the sun does not set till 10 minutes after 10 o'clock, and rises again 50 minutes after one o'clock. The winter days are proportionably short.

PRODUCTIONS, MINERAL AND VEGETABLE.] The amiantus and asbestos, or stone flax, is found in plenty in the hills of this country. There are also quartzes and crystals in pretty large pieces, coarse marble of all colours, iron stone and ore, and a soft stone called by some, French chalk, by others bastard marble, out of which the inhabitants make all their vessels. When rubbed with oil, it assumes a beautiful marble smoothness, and grows more firm and solid by being used over the fire.

Among the vegetables of this cold country are sorrel of various sorts, angelica, wild tansey, scurvy grass in great quantities, wild rosemary, dandelions in plenty, and various sorts of grass. Whortle-berries and cranberries grow here. Europeans have sown barley and oats, which grow as high and thrifty as in warmer climates, but seldom advance so far as to ear, and never, even in the warmest places, to maturity, because the frosty nights begin too soon.

ANIMALS.] Unfruitful as this country is, it affords food for some, though but few kinds of beasts, which furnish the natives with food and raiment. Of the wild game, are white hares, rein deer, foxes, and white bears, who are fierce and mischievous. The Greenlanders have no tame animals but a species of dogs, which resemble wolves.

The *Seal* of Greenland is a quadruped, and amphibious. There are several sorts of them, but they are alike in having a tough hairy skin, like the land animals, except that the hair is thick, short and smooth. They have two short feet before, standing downwards, for the convenience of rowing, and behind they have also two standing outwards for steering, one on each side of the tail. They have five toes on their feet, each consisting of four joints, and terminating in a long nail or claw, with which they climb the ice or rocks. The hinder feet are webbed like those of a goose, so that in swimming they spread them like a fan. The water is their proper element, and fish their food. Their flesh affords the inhabitants a nourishing food, and their skins an excellent warm covering.

RELIGION.] The first missionaries among the Greenlanders entertained a doubt whether they had any conception of a Divine Being, as they had no word in their language by which to designate him. When they were asked who made the heaven and earth, and all visible things? their answer was—"We know not; or, we don't know him; or, it must have been some mighty person; or, things always have been as they are, and will always remain so." But when they understood their language better, they found they had some vague notions concerning the soul, and spirits; and were

were solicitous about the state after death. It was evident also that they had some faint conceptions of a Divine Being.

They believe in the doctrine of the transmigration of souls—that the soul is a spiritual essence, quite different from the body—that it needs no corporeal nourishment—that it survives the body, and lives in a future better state, which they believe will never end. But they have very different ideas of this state. Many place their *Elysium* in the abysses of the ocean, or the bowels of the earth, and think the deep cavities of the rocks are the avenues leading to it. There dwells *Torngarsuck** and his mother; there a joyous summer is perpetual, and a shining sun is obscured by no night; there is the limpid stream, and abundance of fowls, fishes, rein deer, and their beloved seals, and these are all to be caught without toil, nay they are even found in a great kettle boiling alive. But to these delightful seats none must approach but those who have been dextrous and diligent at their work, (for this is their grand idea of virtue) that have performed great exploits, and have mastered many whales and seals, have undergone great hardships, have been drowned in the sea, or died in childbirth. The disembodied spirit does not enter dancing into the Elysian fields, but must spend five whole days, some say longer, in sliding down a rugged rock, which is thereby smeared with blood and gore. Those unfortunate souls which are obliged to perform this rough journey in the cold winter, or in boisterous weather, are peculiar objects of their pity, because they may be easily destroyed on the road, which destruction they call the second death, and describe it as a perfect extinction, and this, to them, is the most dreadful consideration. Therefore during these five days or more, the surviving relations must abstain from certain meats, and from all noisy work, (except the necessary fishing) that the soul may not be disturbed or perish in its perilous passage. From all which, it is plain that the Greenlanders, stupid as they have been represented, have an idea that the good will be rewarded—and the bad punished—and that they conceive a horror at the thoughts of the entire annihilation of the soul.

Others have their paradise among the celestial bodies, and they imagine their flight thither so easy and rapid, that the soul rests the very same evening in the mansion of the moon, who was a Greenlander, and there it can dance and play at ball with the rest of the souls; for they think the northern lights to be the dance of sportive souls. The souls in this paradise are placed in tents round a vast lake abounding with fish and fowl. When this lake overflows, it rains on the earth, but should the dam once break, there would be a general deluge.

The wiser Greenlanders, who consider the soul as a spiritual immaterial essence, laugh at all this, and say, if there should be such a material, luxuriant paradise, where souls could entertain themselves with hunting, still it can only endure for a time; afterwards the souls will certainly be conveyed to the peaceful mansions: but they know not what their food or employment will be. On the other hand, they place their hell in the subterraneous regions, which are devoid of light and heat, and filled with perpetual terror and anxiety. This last sort of people lead a regular life, and refrain from every thing they think is evil.

[HISTORY.] West Greenland was first peopled by Europeans in the eighth century. At that time a company of Icelanders, headed by one Ericke Rande, were by accident driven on the coast. On his return he represented the country in such a favourable light, that some families again followed him thither, where they soon became a thriving colony, and bestowed on their new habitation the name of *Groenland*, or *Greenland*, on account of its verdant appearance. This colony was converted to Christianity by a

* The name of the good spirit, answering to the heathen Jupiter.

missionary from Norway, sent thither by the celebrated Olaf, the first Norwegian monarch who embraced the true religion. The Greenland settlement continued to increase and thrive under his protection; and in a little time the country was provided with many towns, churches, convents, bishops, &c. under the jurisdiction of the Archbishop of Drontheim. A considerable commerce was carried on between Greenland and Norway; and a regular intercourse maintained between the two countries till the year 1406, when the last bishop was sent over. From that time all correspondence was cut off, and all knowledge of Greenland has been buried in oblivion.

This strange and abrupt cessation of all trade and intercourse has been attributed to various causes; but the most probable is the following: the colony, from its first settlement, had been harrassed by the natives, a barbarous and savage people, agreeing in customs, garb, and appearance, with the Esquimaux found about Hudson's Bay. This nation, called *Schrellings*, at length prevailed against the Iceland settlers who inhabited the western district, and exterminated them in the 14th century: inasmuch, that when their brethren of the eastern district came to their assistance, they found nothing alive but some cattle and flocks of sheep running wild about the country. Perhaps they themselves afterwards experienced the same fate, and were totally destroyed by these Schrellings, whose descendants still inhabit the western parts of Greenland, and from tradition confirm this conjecture. They affirm that the houses and villages, whose ruins still appear, were inhabited by a nation of strangers, whom their ancestors destroyed. There are reasons, however, for believing that there may be still some descendants of the ancient Iceland colony remaining in the eastern district, though they cannot be visited by land, on account of the stupendous mountains, perpetually covered with snow, which divide the two parts of Greenland; while they have been rendered inaccessible by sea, by the vast quantity of ice driven from Spitzbergen, or East Greenland. One would imagine that there must have been some considerable alteration in the northern parts of the world since the 15th century, so that the coast of Greenland is now become almost totally inaccessible, though formerly visited with very little difficulty. It is also natural to ask, by what means the people of the eastern colony surmounted the above-mentioned obstacles when they went to the assistance of their western friends; how they returned to their own country; and in what manner historians learned the success of their expedition? Concerning all this we have very little satisfactory information. All that can be learned from the most authentic records is, that Greenland was divided into two districts, called *West Bygd* and *East Bygd*; that the western division contained four parishes and 100 villages: that the eastern district was still more flourishing, as being nearer to Iceland, sooner settled, and more frequented by shipping from Norway. There are also many accounts, though most of them romantic and slightly attested, which render it probable that part of the eastern colony still subsists, who, at some time or other, may have given the imperfect relation above mentioned. This colony, in ancient times, certainly comprehended twelve extensive parishes, one hundred and ninety villages, a bishop's see, and two monasteries. The present inhabitants of the western district are entirely ignorant of this part, from which they are entirely divided by rocks, mountains, and deserts, and still more frequently by their apprehension: for they believe the eastern Greenlanders to be a cruel, barbarous nation, that destroy and eat all strangers who fall into their hands. About a century after all intercourse between Norway and Greenland had ceased, several ships were sent successively by the kings of Denmark, in order to discover the eastern district; but all of them miscarried. Among these adventurers, Mogens Heinson, after having surmounted many difficulties and dangers, got sight of the land, which, however, he could not approach. At his return, he pretended

pretended that the ship was arrested in the middle of her course, by certain rocks of loadstone at the bottom of the sea. The same year, 1576, in which this attempt was made, has been rendered remarkable by the voyage of Captain Martin Frobisher, sent upon the same errand by Queen Elizabeth. He likewise described the land; but could not reach it, and therefore returned to England; yet not before he had sailed sixty leagues in the strait, which still retains his name, and landed on several islands, where he had some communication with the natives. He had likewise taken possession of the country in the name of Queen Elizabeth; and brought away some pieces of heavy black stone, from which the refiners of London extracted a certain proportion of gold. In the ensuing spring, he undertook a second voyage at the head of a small squadron, equipped at the expence of the public; entered the straits a second time; discovered upon an island a gold and silver mine; bestowed names on different bays, islands, and headlands; and brought away a lading of ore, together with two natives, a male and a female, whom the English kidnapped.

Such was the success of this voyage, that another armament was fitted out under the auspices of Admiral Frobisher, consisting of fifteen sail, including a considerable number of soldiers, miners, smelters, carpenters, and bakers, to remain all winter near the mines in a wooden fort, the different pieces of which they carried out in their tripports. They met with boisterous weather, impenetrable fogs, and violent currents, upon the coast of Greenland, which retarded their operations until the season was far advanced. Part of their wooden fort was lost at sea; and they had neither provision nor fuel sufficient for the winter. The admiral therefore determined to return with as much ore as he could procure: of this they obtained large quantities out of a new mine, to which they gave the name of the Countess of Suffex. They likewise built an house of stone and lime, provided with ovens; and here, with a view to conciliate the affections of the natives, they left a quantity of small morrice-bells, knives, beads, looking-glasses, leaden pictures, and other toys, together with several loaves of bread. They buried the timber of the fort where it could be easily found next year; and sowed corn, peas, and other grain, by way of experiment, to know what the country would produce. Having taken these precautions, they sailed from thence in the beginning of September; and after a month's stormy passage, arrived in England: but this noble design was never prosecuted.

Christian IV. King of Denmark, being desirous of discovering the old Greenland settlement, sent three ships thither, under the command of Captain Godtke Lindenow; who is said to have reached the east coast of Greenland, where he traded with the savage inhabitants, such as they are still found in the western district, but saw no signs of a civilized people. Had he actually landed in the eastern division, he must have perceived some remains of the ancient colony, even in the ruins of their convents and villages. Lindenow kidnapped two of the natives, who were conveyed to Copenhagen; and the same cruel fraud* was practised by two other ships which failed

* Nothing can be more inhuman and repugnant to the dictates of common justice, than this practice of tearing away poor creatures from their country, their families, and connections, unless we suppose them altogether destitute of natural affection; and that this was not the case with those poor Greenlanders, some of whom were brought alive to Copenhagen, appears from the whole tenor of their conduct, upon their first capture, and during their confinement in Denmark. When first captivated, they rent the air with their cries and lamentations: they even leaped into the sea; and, when taken on board, for some time refused all sustenance. Their eyes were continually turned towards their dear country, and their faces always bathed in tears. Even the countenance of his Danish majesty, and the caresses of the court and people, could not alleviate their grief. One of them was perceived to shed tears always when he saw an infant in the mother's arms;

failed into Davis's Straits, where they discovered divers fine harbours and delightful meadows covered with verdure. In some places they are said to have found a considerable quantity of ore, every hundred pounds of which yielded twenty-six ounces of silver. The same Admiral Lindenow made another voyage to the coast of Greenland in the year 1606, directing his course to the westward of Cape Farewell. He coasted along the straits of Davis; and having made some observations on the face of the country, the harbours, and islands, returned to Denmark. Carsten Richards, being detached with two ships on the same discovery, descried the high land on the eastern side of Greenland; but was hindered by the ice from approaching the shore.

Other expeditions of the same nature have been planned and executed with the same bad success, under the auspices of a Danish company of merchants. Two ships returned from the western part of Greenland loaded with a kind of yellow sand, supposed to contain a large proportion of gold. This being assayed by the goldsmiths of Copenhagen, was condemned as useless, and thrown overboard: but from a small quantity of this sand, which was reserved as a curiosity, an expert chemist afterwards extracted a quantity of pure gold. The captain, who brought home this adventure, was so chagrined at his disappointment, that he died of grief, without having left any directions concerning the place where the sand had been discovered. In the year 1654, Henry Moller, a rich Dane, equipped a vessel under the command of David de Nelles, who sailed to the west coast of Greenland, from which he carried off three women of the country. Other efforts have been made, under the efforts of the Danish king, for the discovery and recovery of the old Iceland colony in Greenland: but all of them miscarried, and people began to look upon such expeditions as wild and chimerical. At length the Greenland company at Bergen in Norway transported a colony to the western coast, about the 64th degree of latitude, and these Norwegians sailed in the year 1712, accompanied by the Reverend Hans Egede, to whose care, ability, and precision, we owe the best and most authentic account of modern Greenland. This gentleman endeavoured to reach the eastern district, by coasting southwards, and advanced as far as the States Promontory: but the season of the year, and continual storms, obliged him to return; and as he could not even find the Strait of Frobisher, he concluded that no such place ever existed. In the year 1724, a ship, being equipped by the company, sailed on this discovery, with a view to land on the east side opposite to Iceland; but the vast shoals of ice, which barricaded that part of the coast, rendered this scheme impracticable. His Danish majesty, in the year 1728, caused horses to be transported to Greenland, in hopes that the settlers might, by their means, travel over land to the eastern district; but the icy mountains were found impassable. Finally, Lieutenant Richards, in a ship which had wintered near the new Danish colony, attempted, in his return to Denmark, to land on the eastern shore, but all his endeavours proved abortive.

Mr. Egede is of opinion, that the only practicable method of reaching that part of the country, will be to coast north-about in small vessels, between the great flakes of

arms; a circumstance from whence it was naturally concluded, that he had left his wife with a young child in Greenland. Two of them went to sea in their little canoes in hope of reaching Greenland; but one of them was retaken. Other two made the same attempt, but were driven by a storm on the coast of Schonen, where they were apprehended by the peasants, and reconveyed to Copenhagen. One of them afterwards died of a fever, caught in fishing pearl, during the winter, for the governor of Kolding. The rest lived some years in Denmark; but at length, seeing no prospect of being able to revisit their native country, they sunk into a kind of melancholy disorder, and expired.

ice and the shore; as the Greenlanders have declared, that the currents continually issuing from the bays and inlets, and running south-westwards along the shore, hinder the ice from adhering to the land; so that there is always a channel open, through which vessels of small burden might pass, especially if lodges were built at suitable distances on the shore, for the convenience and direction of the adventurers.

BRITISH AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

UNDER the general name of British America, we comprehend the vast and unknown extent of country, bounded south, by the United States of America, and the Atlantic ocean: east, by the same ocean and Davis's Straits, which divide it from Greenland; extending north to the northern limits of the Hudson's Bay charter; and westward to an unknown extent—lying between $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 7° north latitude; and between 50° and 105° west long. from Greenwich; and between 25° east and 30° west long. from Philadelphia.

DIVISIONS.] British America is divided into four provinces, viz. 1. Upper Canada; 2. Lower Canada, to which are annexed New Britain, or the country lying round Hudson's Bay, and the Island of Cape Breton; 3. New Brunswick; 4. Nova Scotia, to which is annexed the Island of St. John's. Besides these there is the Island of Newfoundland, which is governed by the admiral for the time being, and two lieutenant governors, who reside at Placentia and St. John's. The troops stationed at Newfoundland, however, are subject to the orders of the Governor-general of the four British Provinces.

NEW BRITAIN.

THE country lying round Hudson's Bay, or the country of the Esquimaux, comprehending Labrador, New North and South Wales, has obtained the general name of NEW BRITAIN, and is attached to the government of Lower Canada. A superintendant of trade, appointed by the Governor-general of the four British Provinces, and responsible to him, resides at Labrador.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers which water this country, are the Wager, Monk, Seal, Pockerekesko, Churchill, Nelson, Hayes, New Severn, Albany, and Moose rivers, all which empty into Hudson's and James Bay from the west. The mouths of all the rivers are filled with shoals, except Churchill's, in which the largest ships may lie; but ten miles higher the channel is obstructed by sand banks. All the rivers as far as they have been explored, are full of rapids and cataracts, from ten to sixty feet perpendicular. Down these rivers the Indian traders find a quick passage; but their return is a labour of many months.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, &c.] As far inland as the Hudson Bay Company have settlements, which is 600 miles to the west of Fort Churchill, at a place called Hudson House, lat. 53° , lon. $106^{\circ} 27'$ W. from London, is flat country: nor is it known how far to the eastward the great chain seen by navigators from the Pacific Ocean branches off. From Moote River, or the bottom of the bay, to Cape Churchill, the land is flat, marshy, and wooded with pines, birch, larch, and willows. From Cape Churchill, to Wager's River, the coasts are high and rocky to the very sea, and woodless, except the mouths of Pockerekesko and Seal rivers. The hills on their back are naked, nor are there any trees for a great distance inland,

The eastern coast is barren, past the efforts of cultivation. The surface is every where uneven, and covered with masses of stone of an amazing size. It is a country of fruitless and frightful mountains, some of an astonishing height. The vallies are full of lakes, formed not from springs, but rain and snow, so chilly as to be productive of a few small trout only. The mountains have here and there a blighted shrub, or a little moss. The vallies are full of crooked, stunted trees, pines, fir, birch, and cedars, or rather a species of the juniper. In latitude 60° , on this coast, vegetation ceases. The whole shore, like that on the west, is faced with islands at some distance from land.

INHABITANTS, CUSTOMS, &c.] The inhabitants among the mountains are Indians; along the coasts, Esquimaux. The dogs of the former are very small; of the latter, large, and headed like a fox. Notwithstanding they have rein deer, they never train them for the sledge, but apply their dogs to that use. Walruses visit a place called Nuchvunk, in latitude 60° , during winter; from thence the natives purchase the teeth with which they head their darts.

The laudable zeal of the Moravian clergy induced them, in the year 1752, to send missionaries from Greenland to this country. They fixed on Nesbit's harbour for their settlement; but of the first party, some of them were killed, and the others driven away. In 1764, under the protection of the British government, another attempt was made. The missionaries were well received by the Esquimaux, and the mission goes on with success.

CLIMATE.] The climate, even about Haye's river, in only lat. 57° , is, during winter, excessively cold. The snows begin to fall in October, and continue falling by intervals the whole winter; and, when the frost is most rigorous, in form of the finest sand. The ice on the rivers is eight feet thick. Port wine freezes into a solid mass; brandy coagulates. The very breath falls on the blankets of the beds in the form of a hoar frost, and the bed cloaths often are found frozen to the wall. The sun rises, in the shortest day, five minutes past nine, and sets five minutes before three. In the longest day the sun rises at three, and sets about nine. The ice begins to disappear in May, and hot weather commences about the middle of June, which at times is so violent as to scorch the faces of the hunters. Thunder is not frequent, but very violent. But there must be a great difference of heat and cold in this vast extent, which reaches from lat. $50. 40$, to lat. 63 north.—During winter the firmament is not without its beauties. Mock suns, halos are not unfrequent; they are very bright, and richly tinged with all the colours of the rainbow. The sun rises and sets with a large cone of yellowish light. The night is enlivened with the Aurora Borealis, which spreads a thousand different lights and colours over the whole concave of the sky, not to be defaced even by the splendour of the full moon; and the stars are of a fiery redness.

ANIMALS.]

ANIMALS.] The animals of these countries are, the moose deer, stags, rein deer, bears, tygers, buffaloes, wolves, foxes, beavers, otters, lynxes, martins, squirrels, ermines, wild cats, and hares. The rein deer pass in vast herds towards the north in October, seeking the extreme cold. The male polar bears rove out at sea, on the floating ice, most of the winter, and till June; the females lie concealed in the woods, or beneath the banks of rivers, till March, when they come abroad with their twin cubs, and bend their course to the sea in search of their comforts. Several are killed in their passage; and those that are wounded show vast fury, roar hideously, and bite and throw up in the air even their own progeny. The females and the young, when not interrupted, continue their way to the sea. In June the males return to shore, and by August are joined by their comforts, with their cubs, by that time of a considerable size. The feathered kinds are, geese, bustards, ducks, growse, and all manner of wild fowls. Indeed multitudes of birds retire to this remote country, to Labrador and Newfoundland, from places more remotely south, perhaps from the Antilles; and some even of the most delicate little species. Most of them, with numbers of aquatic fowls, are seen returning southward with their young broods to more favourable climates. The savages in some respects regulate their months by the appearance of birds; and have their goose month, from the vernal appearance of geese, from the south. All the grouse kind, ravens, cinereous crows, titmouse, and Lapland finch, brave the severest winter; and several of the falcons and owls seek shelter in the woods. Of fish, there are whales, morse, seals, codfish, and a white fish, preferable to herrings; and in their rivers and fresh waters, pike, perch, carp, and trout.

All the quadrupeds of these countries are clothed with a close, soft, warm fur. In summer there is here, as in other places, a variety in the colours of the several animals; when that season is over, which holds only for three months, they all assume the livery of winter, and every sort of beasts, and most of their fowls, are of the colour of the snow; every thing animate and inanimate is white. This is a surprising phenomenon. But what is yet more surprising, and what is indeed one of the most striking things, that draw the most inattentive to an admiration of the wisdom and goodness of Providence, is, that the dogs and cats from Britain that have been carried into Hudson's Bay, on the approach of winter, have entirely changed their appearance, and acquired a much longer, softer, and thicker coat of hair than they had originally.

DISCOVERY AND COMMERCE.] The knowledge of these northern seas and countries was owing to a project started in England for the discovery of a north-west passage to China and the East Indies, as early as the year 1576. Since then it has been frequently dropped and as often revived, but never yet completed; and from the late voyages of discovery it seems probable, that no practicable passage ever can be found. Probiſher discovered the Main of New Britain, or Terra de Labrador, and those straits to which he has given his name. In 1585, John Davis sailed from Portsmouth, and viewed that and the more northern coasts, but he seems never to have entered the bay. Hudson made three voyages on the same adventure, the first in 1607, the second in 1608, and his third and last in 1610. This bold and judicious navigator entered the straits that lead into the bay known by his name, coasted a great part of it, and penetrated to eighty degrees and a half, into the heart of the frozen zone. His ardour for the discovery not being abated by the difficulties he struggled with in this empire of winter, and world of frost and snow, he stayed here until the ensuing spring, and prepared, in the beginning of 1611, to pursue his discoveries, but his crew, who suffered equal hardships, without the same spirit to support them, mutinied, seized upon him and seven of those who were most faithful to him, and committed them to the fury of the

icy seas in an open boat. Hudson and his companions were either swallowed up by the waves, or gaining the inhospitable coast, were destroyed by the savages; but the ship and the rest of the men returned home.

Other attempts towards a discovery were made in 1612 and 1667; and a patent for planting the country, with a charter for a company, was obtained in the year 1670. In 1646 Captain Ellis wintered as far north as 57 degrees and a half, and Captain Christopher attempted farther discoveries in 1361. But besides these voyages, we are indebted to the Hudson's Bay Company for a journey by land; * which throws much additional light on this matter, by affording what may be called demonstration, how much farther North, at least in some parts of their voyage, ships must go, before they can pass from one side of America to the other. The northern Indians, who came down to the Company's factories to trade, had brought to their knowledge a river, which, on account of much copper being found near it, had obtained the name of the Copper Mine river. The Company being desirous of examining into this matter with precision, directed Mr. Hearne, a young gentleman in their service, and who having been brought up for the navy, and served in it the war before last, was extremely well qualified for the purpose, to proceed over land, under the convoy of those Indians, for that river; which he had orders to survey, if possible, quite down to its exit into the sea; to make observations for fixing the latitudes and longitudes; and to bring home maps and drawings, both of it and the countries through which he should pass.

Accordingly Mr. Hearne set out from Prince of Wales's Fort, on Churchill river, latitude $58^{\circ} 47\frac{1}{2}'$ North, and longitude $94^{\circ} 7\frac{1}{2}'$ West from Greenwich, on the 7th of December, 1770. Mr. Hearne on the 13th of July reached the Copper Mine river, and found it all the way, even to its exit into the sea, incumbered with shoals and falls, and emptying itself into it over a dry flat of the shore, the tide being then out, which seemed, by the edges of the ice, to rise about 12 or 14 feet. This rise, on account of the falls, will carry it but a very small way within the river's mouth, so that the water in it has not the least brackish taste. Mr. Hearne is, nevertheless, sure of the place it emptied itself into being the sea, or a branch of it, by the quantity of whale bone and seal skins which the Esquimaux had at their tents; and also by the number of seals which he saw upon the ice. The sea, at the river's mouth, was full of islands and shoals, as far as he could see, by the assistance of a pocket telescope; and the ice was not yet (July 17th) broke up, but thawed away only for about three quarters of a mile from the shore, and for a little way round the island and shoals which lay off the river's mouth. But he had the most extensive view of the sea when he was about eight miles up the river, from which station the extreme parts of it bore N. W. by W. and N. E.

By the time Mr. Hearne had finished his survey of the river, which was about one o'clock in the morning on the 18th, there came on a very thick fog and drizzling rain; and as he had found the river and sea, in every respect unlikely to be of any utility, he thought it unnecessary to wait for fair weather, to determine the latitude more exactly by observation; but by the extraordinary care he took in observing the courses and distances, walking from *Congecathawbachaga*, where he had two very good observations, he thinks the latitude may be depended on within $10'$ at the utmost. It appears from the map which Mr. Hearne constructed of this singular journey, that the mouth of the Copper Mine river lies in latitude 72° N. and longitude 25° W. from Churchill river; that is, about 119° W. of Greenwich. Mr. Hearne's journey back from the Copper

* See page 73.

Mine river to Churchill lasted till June 30th 1772; so that he was absent almost a year and seven months. The unparalleled hardships he suffered, and the essential service he performed, have met with a suitable reward from his masters. He has been several years governor of Prince of Wales's Fort on Churchill river, where he was taken prisoner by the French in 1782.

Though the adventurers failed in the original purpose for which they navigated this bay, their project, even in its failure, has been of great advantage to England. The vast countries which surround Hudson's Bay, as we have already observed, abound with animals, whose fur and skins are excellent. In 1670, a charter was granted to a company, which does not consist of above nine or ten persons, for the exclusive trade to this bay; and they have acted under it ever since with great benefit to the private men who compose the company, though comparatively with little advantage to Great Britain. The fur and peltry trade might be carried on to a much greater extent, were it not entirely in the hands of this exclusive company, whose interested, not to say iniquitous spirit, has been the subject of long and just complaint. The company employ four ships, and 130 seamen. They have several forts, viz. Prince of Wales's fort, Churchill river, Nelson, New Severn, and Albany, which stand on the west side of the bay, and are garrisoned by 186 men. The French, in May 1782, took and destroyed these forts, and the settlements, &c. said to amount to the value of 500,000*l.* They export commodities to the value of 16,000*l.* and carry home returns to the value of 29,340*l.* which yield to the revenue 3,734*l.* This includes the fishery in Hudson's Bay. This commerce, small as it is, affords immense profits to the company, and even some advantages to Great Britain in general; for the commodities exchanged with the Indians for their skins and furs, are all manufactured in Britain; and as the Indians are not very nice in their choice, such things are sent of which there is the greatest plenty, and which, in the mercantile phrase, are drugs. Though the workmanship too happens to be in many respects so deficient, that no civilized people would take it, it may be admired among the Indians. On the other hand, the skins and furs brought from Hudson's Bay are manufactured, and afford articles for trading with many nations of Europe, to great advantage. These circumstances prove the immense benefit that would redound to Britain, by throwing open the trade to Hudson's Bay, since even in its present restrained state it is so advantageous. The only attempt made to trade with Labrador, has been directed towards the fishery. Great Britain has no settlement here. The annual produce of the fishery amounts to upwards of 49,000*l.*

UPPER AND LOWER CANADA.

THE Provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, constituted by act of Parliament in 1791, comprehend the territory heretofore called *Canada*, or the *Province of Quebec*.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.	Degrees.
Length 600 } between { 61 and 81 W. lon. from London, or	
Breadth 550 } { 14 E. and 6 W. from Philadelphia.	
	42 30 and 52 N. latitude.

BOUNDARIES

BOUNDARIES AND DIVISIONS.] Bounded north, by New Britain; east, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and part of the Province of New Brunswick; south-east and south, by the District of Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York and the lakes; the western boundary is undefined. The Province of Upper Canada is the same as what is commonly called the Upper Country. It lies north of the great lakes, between the latitudes of $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 50° , and is separated from New York by the river St. Lawrence, here called the Cataraqui, and the Lakes Ontario and Erie.

Lower Canada lies on both sides the river St. Lawrence, between 61° and 71° W. lon. from London; and 45° and 52° N. lat. and is bounded south by New Brunswick, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, and New York; and west by Upper Canada.

The line which divides Upper from Lower Canada commences at a stone boundary, on the north bank of the lake St. Francis, at the cove west of *Pointe au Boudet*, in the limit between the township of Lancaster and the Seigneurie of New Longueuil, running along the said limit in the direction of north thirty-four degrees west, to the westernmost angle of the said Seigneurie of New Longueuil; thence along the north-western boundary of the Seigneurie of Vandreuil, running north, twenty-five degrees east, until it strikes the Ottawas river; to ascend the said river into the lake Tomiscanning; and from the head of the said lake by a line drawn due north, until it strikes the boundary line of Hudson's Bay or New Britain. Upper Canada, to include all the territory to the westward and southward of the said line, to the utmost extent of the country known by the name of Canada.

RIVERS.] The river St. Lawrence is one of the largest rivers in North America. It issues from Lake Ontario, forming the outlet of the long chain of great lakes, which separate Upper Canada from the United States. It takes its course north-east; washes the island of Montreal, which it embosoms; just above which it receives Ottawas from the west, and forms many fertile islands. Continuing the same course, it meets the tide upwards of 400 miles from the sea, and is so far navigable for large vessels. Below Quebec it becomes broad and of sufficient depth for ships of war. Having received in its course, besides Ottawas, St. John's, Seguina, Despraires, Trois Rivières, and innumerable other smaller streams, it falls into the ocean at Cape Rosières, by a mouth 90 miles broad. In its course it forms a great variety of bays, harbours and islands, many of them fruitful and extremely pleasant.

A river has been lately surveyed, by the deputy Surveyor General of Canada, from its entrance into the Bay of Kenty, near Cadaraqui, to its source of Lake St. Clie; from which there is an easy and short portage across N. W. to the N. E. angle of Lake Huron; and another that is neither long nor difficult, to the southward, to the old settlement of Toronto. This is a short rout from Fort Frontinac to Michillimakinak.

CLIMATE.] Winter continues with such severity from December to April, as that the largest rivers are frozen over, and the snow lies commonly from four to six feet deep during the winter. But the air is so serene and clear, and the inhabitants so well defended against the cold, that this season is neither unhealthy nor unpleasant: The springs open suddenly, and vegetation is surprizingly rapid. The summer is delightful, except that a part of it is extremely hot.

SOIL AND PRODUCE.] Though the climate be cold, and the winter long and tedious, the soil is in general very good, and in many parts both pleasant and fertile, producing wheat, barley, rye, with many other sorts of grain, fruits, and vegetables; tobacco, in particular, thrives well, and is much cultivated. The isle of Orleans,
near

near Quebec, and the lands upon the river St. Lawrence and other rivers are remarkable for the richness of the soil. The meadow grounds in Canada, which are well watered, yield excellent grass, and feed great numbers of great and small cattle.

ANIMALS.] See this article under the head of the United States.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Quebec is the capital, not only of Lower Canada, but of all British America, and is situated at the confluence of the rivers St. Lawrence and St. Charles, or the Little River, about 320 miles from the sea. It is built on a rock, partly of marble, and partly of slate. The town is divided into an upper and lower. The houses in both are of stone, and built in a tolerable manner. The fortifications are strong, though not regular. The town is covered with a regular and beautiful citadel, in which the governor resides. The number of inhabitants is computed at about 15,000. The river, which from the sea hither is four or five leagues broad, narrows all of a sudden to about a mile wide. The haven, which lies opposite the town, is safe and commodious, and about five fathoms deep. The harbour is flanked by two bastions, that are raised 25 feet from the ground, which is about the height of the tides at the time of the equinox.

From Quebec to Montreal, which is about 170 miles, in sailing up the river St. Lawrence, the eye is entertained with beautiful landscapes, the banks being in many places very bold and steep, and shaded with lofty trees. The farms lie pretty close all the way, several gentlemen's houses, neatly built, shew themselves at intervals, and there is all the appearance of a flourishing colony; but there are few towns or villages. It is pretty much like the well settled parts of Virginia and Maryland, where the planters are wholly within themselves. Many beautiful islands are interspersed in the channel of the river, which have an agreeable effect upon the eye. After passing the Richelieu islands, the air becomes so mild and temperate, that the traveller thinks himself transported to another climate; but this is to be understood only in the summer months.

The town called Trois Rivières, or the Three Rivers, is about half way between Quebec and Montreal, and has its name from three rivers which join their currents here, and fall into the river St. Lawrence. It is much resorted to by several nations of Indians, who, by means of these rivers, come hither and trade with the inhabitants in various kinds of furs and skins. The country is pleasant, and fertile in corn, fruit, &c. and great numbers of handsome houses stand on both sides the river.

Montreal stands on an island in the river St. Lawrence, which is ten leagues in length, and four in breadth, at the foot of a mountain which gives name to it, about half a league from the south shore. While the French had possession of Canada, both the city and island of Montreal belonged to private proprietors, who had improved them so well, that the whole island had become a most delightful spot, and produced every thing that could administer to the conveniences of life. The city forms an oblong square, divided by regular and well-formed streets; and when taken by the English the houses were built in a very handsome manner; and every house might be seen at one view from the harbour, or from the southernmost side of the river, as the hill on the side of which the town stands falls gradually to the water. This place is surrounded by a wall and a dry ditch; and its fortifications have been much improved by the English. Montreal is nearly as large as Quebec, but since it fell into the hands of the English it has suffered much by fires.

The principal towns in Upper Canada are Kingston, on Lake Ontario, Niagara, between Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, and Detroit, situated on the western bank of

Detroit river, between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and nine miles below Lake St. Clair.*

GOVERNMENT.] By the Quebec act, passed by the parliament of Great Britain in the year 1791, so much of the act of the 14th of George III. passed in the year 1774, as relates to the appointment of a council for the government of the province of Quebec, is repealed; and it is enacted that there shall be within each of the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, a legislative council, and an assembly, who, with the consent of the Governor, appointed by the King, shall have power to make laws. The Governor may give or withhold his Majesty's assent to bills passed by the legislative council and assembly, or reserve them for his Majesty's pleasure. Bills reserved are to have no force till his Majesty's assent is signified by the Governor, which, to be valid, must be signified within two years from the time the bill is presented to the Governor. The Governor must transmit to the Secretary of State copies of such bills as have been assented to, which his Majesty in council may declare his disallowance of within two years from the receipt.

The Legislative Council is to consist of not fewer than seven members for Upper, and fifteen for Lower Canada, to be summoned by the Governor, who must be authorized by the King. Such members are to hold their seats for life; unless forfeited by four years continual absence, or by swearing allegiance to some foreign power.

The House of Assembly is to consist of not less than sixteen members from Upper, and not less than fifty from Lower Canada, chosen by the freeholders in the several towns and districts. The council and assembly are to be called together at least once in every year, and every assembly is to continue four years, unless sooner dissolved by the Governor. All questions are to be decided by a majority of votes of the members present. His Majesty may authorize the Governor to fix the time and place of holding the elections, (subject, however, to such provisions as may hereafter be made by the Legislature) and to fix the times and places of holding the sessions of the assembly, and to prorogue and dissolve the same whenever he shall judge it necessary.

The Governor, together with such of the executive council as shall be appointed by the King, for the affairs of each province, are to be a court of civil jurisdiction for hearing and determining appeals, subject, however, to such appeals from their judgement as heretofore existed. All lands in Upper Canada are to be granted hereafter in free and common socage; and also in Lower Canada, when the grantee shall desire it, subject nevertheless to alterations by an act of the Legislature.

British America is superintended by an officer styled Governor General of the four British provinces in North America, who, besides other powers, is commander in chief of all the British troops in the four provinces and the governments attached to them and Newfoundland. Each of the provinces have a Lieutenant Governor, who, in the absence of the Governor General, has all the powers requisite to a chief magistrate.

POPULATION.] Upper Canada, though an infant settlement, is said by some to contain 40,000, by others, only 20,000 inhabitants. The truth probably is between them. Lower Canada, in 1784, contained 113,012 souls. Both provinces may now contain about 150,000 souls, which number is multiplying both by natural increase and by emigrations.

* Niagara and Detroit, though now in possession of the British government, contrary to treaty of peace, are both within the limits of the United States.

RELIGION.] As many as about nine tenths of the inhabitants of these provinces are Roman Catholics, who enjoy under the present government, the same provision, rights, and privileges, as were granted them in 1774, by the act of 14th of George III. The rest of the people are Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and a few of almost all the different sects of Christians.

Agreeably to constitution, his Majesty may authorize the Governor to make allotments of lands, for the support of a Protestant clergy in each province, out of the crown lands already granted; and to the same purpose is to be appropriated the amount of one seventh of the value of all future grants of lands. His Majesty may authorize the Governor, with the advice of the Executive Council, to erect parsonages, according to the establishment of the church of England, within every township, or parish already formed, or which may hereafter be formed; and to endow them with so much of the lands appropriated, as aforesaid, as they shall judge to be expedient; and also to present to every such parsonage, a minister of the church of England, duly ordained, who is to hold and enjoy in the same manner, and upon the same conditions, as incumbents in England. But presentations to parsonages, and the enjoyment of them, are to be subject to the ecclesiastical jurisdiction granted to the bishop of Nova Scotia.

TRADE.] The amount of the exports from the province of Quebec, in the year 1786, was £343,262 : 19 : 6. The amount of imports in the same year was £325,116. The exports consisted of wheat, flour, biscuit, flaxseed, lumber of various kinds, fish, potash, oil, ginseng and other medicinal roots, but principally of furs and peltries, to the amount of £285,977. The imports consisted of rum, brandy, molasses, coffee, sugar, wines, tobacco, salt, chocolate, provisions for the troops, and dry goods.

HISTORY.] This country was discovered by the English as early as about 1497, and settled by the French in 1608, who kept possession of it till 1760, when it was taken by the British arms, and at the treaty of Paris, in 1763, was ceded, by France, to the crown of England, to whom it has ever since belonged.

For the best history of this country the reader is referred to Charlevoix's history of it; to the Encyclopedia Britannica; articles, Canada, Quebec, and America, No. 195, 200, and 207.

THE ISLAND OF CAPE BRETON.

Annexed to the Province of LOWER CANADA.

THE island, or rather collection of islands, called by the French *Les Isles de Madame*, which lie so contiguous as that they are commonly called but one, and comprehended under the name of the Island of Cape Breton, lies between lat. 45° and 47° N. and between 59° and 60° W. long. from London, or 14° and 15° E. long. from Philadelphia, and about 45 leagues to the eastward of Halifax. It is about 100 miles in length, and 50 in breadth; and is separated from Nova Scotia by a narrow strait, called the *Gut of Cansô*, which is the communication between the Atlantic Ocean and the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

It is surrounded with little sharp-pointed rocks, separated from each other by the waves, above which some of their tops are visible. All its harbours are open to the east, turn-

ing towards the south. On the other parts of the coast there are but a few anchoring places for small vessels, in creeks, or between islets. The harbour of St. Peter's, at the west end of the island, is a very commodious place for carrying on the fishery.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Except in the hilly parts, the surface of the country has but little solidity, being every where covered with a light moss and with water. The dampness of the soil is exhaled in fog; without rendering the air unwholesome. In other respects, the climate is very cold, owing either to the prodigious quantity of lakes, which cover above half the island, and remain frozen a long time; or to the number of forests, that totally intercept the rays of the sun; the effect of which is besides decreased by perpetual clouds.

The inhabitants never applied themselves to agriculture, the soil being unfit for it. They often sowed corn, but it seldom came to maturity; and when it did thrive so much as to be worth reaping, it had degenerated so considerably, that it was not fit for seed for the next harvest. They have only continued to plant a few potherbs that are tolerably well tasted, but must be renewed every year from abroad. The poorness and scarcity of pastures has likewise prevented the increase of cattle. In a word, the soil of Cape Breton seems calculated to invite none but fishermen and soldiers.

Though the island was entirely covered with forests before it was inhabited, its wood has scarce ever been an object of trade. A great quantity, however, of soft wood, was found there, fit for firing, and some that might be used for timber; but the oak has always been scarce, and the fir never yielding much resin.

POPULATION, CHIEF TOWNS, &c.] On this island there are about 1000 inhabitants, who have a lieutenant governor resident among them, appointed by the king. The principal towns are Sidney, the capital, and Louisburg, which has the best harbour in the island.

This island may be considered as the key to Canada, and the very valuable fishery, in its neighbourhood, depends for its protection on the possession of this island; as no nation can carry it on without some convenient harbour of strength to supply and protect it; and Louisburg is the principal one for these purposes.

TRADE.] The peltry trade was a very inconsiderable object. It consisted only in the skins of a few lynxes, elks, musk-rats, wild cats, bears, otters, and foxes, both of a red, silver, and grey colour. Some of these were procured from a colony of Micmac Indians, who had settled on the island with the French, and never could raise more than 60 men able to bear arms. The rest came from St. John's or the neighbouring continent. Greater advantages might possibly have been derived from the coal mines which abound in this island. They lie in a horizontal direction; and being no more than six or eight feet below the surface, may be worked without digging deep, or draining off the waters. Notwithstanding the prodigious demand for this coal from New England, from the year 1745 to 1749, these mines would probably have been forsaken, had not the ships, which were sent out to the French islands, wanted ballast. In one of these mines, a fire has been kindled which could never yet be extinguished.

The people of Cape Breton did not send all their fish to Europe. They sent part of it to the French southern islands, on board 20 or 25 ships from 70 to 140 tons burden. Besides the cod, which make at least half their cargo, they exported to the other colonies, timber, planks, thin oak boards, salted salmon and mackerel, train oil, and sea-coal.

These were paid for, some in sugar and coffee, but chiefly in rum and molasses. The island

island could not consume all these commodities. Canada took off but a small part of the overplus; it was chiefly bought by the people of New England, who gave in exchange, fruits, vegetables, wood, bricks, and cattle. This trade of exchange was allowed, but a smuggling trade was added to it, carried on in flour and salt fish.

In 1743, while this island belonged to the French, they caught 1,149,000 quintals of dry fish, and 3,500,000 do. of mud-fish, the value of both which, including 3,116 $\frac{1}{4}$ tons of train oil, drawn from the blubber, amounted to £926,577:10. sterling, according to the prime cost of the fish at Newfoundland. The whole value of this trade, annually, at that period, amounted to a million sterling. No less than 564 ships, besides shallops, and 27,000 seamen, were employed in this trade. Charlevoix, in his History of France, says, "This fishery is a more valuable source of wealth and power to France, than even the mines of Peru and Mexico would be."

HISTORY.] Though some fishermen had long resorted to this island every summer, not more than 20 or 30 had ever fixed there. The French, who took possession of it in August 1713, were properly the first inhabitants. They changed its name into that of *Isle Royale*, and fixed upon Fort Dauphin for their principal settlement. This harbour was two leagues in circumference. The ships came to the very shore, and were sheltered from the winds. Forests, affording oak sufficient to fortify and build a large city, were near at hand; the ground appeared less barren than in other parts, and the fishery was more plentiful. This harbour might have been rendered impregnable at a trifling expence; but the difficulty of approaching it (a circumstance that had at first made a stronger impression than the advantages resulting from it) occasioned it to be abandoned, after great labour had been bestowed upon the undertaking. They then turned their views to Louisburg, the access to which was easier; and convenience was thus preferred to security: the fortification of Louisburg, however, was not begun till 1720.

In the year 1714, some fishermen, who till then had lived in Newfoundland, settled in this island. It was expected that their number would soon have been increased by the Acadians, who were at liberty, from the treaties that had been granted them, to remove with all their effects, and even to dispose of their estates; but these hopes were disappointed. The Acadians chose rather to retain their possessions under the dominion of Britain, than to give them up for any precarious advantage they might derive from their attachment to France. Their place was supplied by some distressed adventurers from Europe, who came over from time to time to Cape Breton, and the number of inhabitants gradually increased to 4000. They were settled at Louisburg, Fort Dauphin, Port Touloué, Neruka, and on all the coasts where they found a proper beach for drying the cod.

This island remained in possession of the French till 1745, when it was captured for the crown of Great Britain, by a body of troops from New England, under the command of Lieutenant General William Pepperell. For the authentic particulars of this important, singular, and successful expedition, see "The American Apollo." Part I. Vol. I. containing the publications of the Historical Society, in Boston. Also Encyclopedia Britannica, article Breton.

NOVA SCOTIA.

Comprehending the Provinces of NEW-BRUNSWICK and NOVA SCOTIA.

BOUNDARIES AND EXTENT.

<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Degrees.</i>
Length 400 } Breadth 300 }	between { 43 30 and 49 north latitude. 60 and 67 east longitude from London. 8 and 15 east longitude from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED on the north, by the River St. Lawrence; east, by the Gulf of St. Lawrence, (which washes its coast 110 leagues in extent, from the Gut of Canso, at its entrance into the gulf, to Cape Rozier, which forms the fourth part of the River St. Lawrence) and by the Gut of Canso, which divides it from Cape Breton; south, it is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, having a sea coast of 90 leagues, from Cape Canso, east, to Cape Sables, west, which forms one part of the entrance into the Bay of Fundy, which also forms a part of its southern boundary; west, by a part of Lower Canada, and the District of Maine.

The tract of country within these limits, known by the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland, was, in 1784, divided into two provinces, viz. New Brunswick on the north-west, and Nova Scotia on the south-east. The former comprehends that part of the old province of Nova Scotia, which lies to the northward and westward of a line drawn from the mouth of the River St. Croix, through the center of the Bay of Fundy to Bay Verte, and thence into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, including all lands within 6 leagues of the coast. The rest is the province of Nova Scotia, to which is annexed, the island of St. John's, which lies north of it, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

DIVISIONS.] In 1783, were the following counties in Nova Scotia, viz.

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Townships.</i>	<i>By whom settled.</i>	<i>Rivers.</i>
HANTS, on the river Avon.	Windfor Falmouth Newport	{	Avon or Pigiguit } All emptying St. Croix } into the Avon, Kenetcoot } and except the Cocmiguén } last navigable. Cacaguet } Navig. 40 m. for Cobeguit } vess. of 60 tons.
HALIFAX. Eastern part of Nova Sco- tia.	Halifax London Dcr. Truro Onslow Colchester Lawrence Southampton Canso Tinnmouth	{ Irish & Scotch { New England {	Shebbenaccadie. Boatable. Pitcoudiac Memremcoot

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Townships.</i>	<i>By whom settled.</i>	<i>Rivers.</i>
KINGS, on the Baſon of Miner.	Cornwallis		Percau, ſmall Habitant, navig. for veſſ. of 40 tons a ſmall diſtance.
	Horton		Canaid, nav. for veſſ. of 160 tons 3 or 4 miles. Cornwallis, navig. for veſſ. of 100 tons 5 m. for v. of 50 tons 10 m. Salmon river.*
ANNAPOLIS, on Annapolis river..	Wilmot	{ ſett. from Ire. and New Eng.	Annapolis, navigable for ſhips of any burthen 10 miles—of 100 tons 15 miles; tide flows 30 miles, paſ- ſable in boats to within 20 miles of Horton.
	Granville	{ do. a fine town- ſhip 30 miles	
	Annapolis	{ in leng. on the Bay of Fundy.	
	Clare	{ 40 families of Acadians.	
CUMBER- LAND, at the head of Bay of Fundy.	Moncton	{ Do.	An Lac Marqueſh } which are nav. 3 or 4 La Planche } miles for veſſels of 5 tons. Napan } ſhoal rivers. Macon } Memrem } navigable 4 or 5 miles. Petcoudia } Chepodie } navigable by boats to Herbert } its head 12 miles.
	Cumberland		
	Sackville,	{ ſettled from N. Eng. & Yorkſh.	
	Amherſt, Hillboro'	{ ſettled from N. of Ire. N. Eng.	
	Hopewell	{ and Yorkſhire	
SUNBURY, on the river St. John's, north ſhore of Bay of Fundy.	Conway		St. John's, deſcribed under the head of rivers.
	Gage Town.		
	Burton		
	Sunbury		
	St. Ann's	{ ſettled from	
QUEENS, ſouth ſide of Bay of Fundy.	Willmot	{ Maſſachuſetts,	None
	Newton	{ Connecticut,	
	Maugerville	{ &c.	
	Argyle	{ Scots & Acad.	
	Yarmouth	{ New England.	
LUNENBURG, on Mahonc Bay.	Barrington	{ Quakers from	None.
	(Sable Iſl.)	{ Nantucket.	
	Liverpool	{ New England.	
	New Dublin	{ Irish formerly, now Germans.	
	Lunenburg	{ Germans	
	Cheſter	{ New England.	
	Blandford	{ 3 families only.	

* There are ſettlements of Acadians on all theſe rivers, whoſe banks are good land.

RIVERS, BAYS, LAKES, and CAPES.] Most of the rivers which water this country have already been mentioned. The rivers *Risgoniche* and *Nipisiguit*, run from west to east into *Chaleur* and *Nipisiguit* Bays, which communicate with the *Gulph of St. Lawrence*. The river *St. Croix*, (which is the true *St. Croix*, is yet undetermined) empties into *Passamaquoddy* Bay, and forms a part of the boundary between *New Brunswick* and *Main*. *St. John's* is the largest river in the province. It empties into the north side of the bay of *Fundy*, and is navigable for vessels of 50 tons, 60 miles, and for boats upwards of 200 miles. This is a common rout to *Quebec*. The banks of this river, enriched by the annual freshets, are excellent land. About 30 miles from the mouth of this river commences a fine level country, covered with large trees of timber of various kinds. Masts, from 20 to 30 inches in diameter, have been cut on this tract. The tide flows, in this river, 80 or 90 miles. It furnishes the inhabitants with salmon, bass, and sturgeon. Near *fort Howe*, the river suddenly narrows, and occasions a fall at certain times of tide, like that at *London Bridge*.

The coast of these provinces is indented with numerous bays, and commodious harbours. The principal, as you descend southerly from the mouth of *St. Lawrence* river, are *Gaspée*, *Chaleur*, *Verte*, which is separated from the bay of *Fundy* by a narrow isthmus of about 18 miles wide; cape and harbour of *Canso*, 40 leagues eastward of *Halifax*. *Chedabucto* Bay is about 10 leagues N. W. of *Canso*. *Chebueto* Bay, on which stands the town of *Halifax*. In the bay of *Fundy*, which extends 50 leagues into the country, the ebb and flow of the tide is from 45 to 60 feet. *Chenigto* Bay is at the head of *Fundy* Bay. *Passamaquoddy* Bay borders on the *District of Main*, and receives the waters of *St. Croix* river. At the entrance of this bay is an island, granted to several gentlemen in *Liverpool*, in *Lancashire*, who named it *Campobello*. At a very considerable expence, they attempted to form a settlement here, but failed. On several other islands in this bay there are settlements made by people from *Massachusetts*. Among the lakes in these provinces, which are very numerous, and as yet without names, is *Grand Lake*, in the province of *New Brunswick*, near *St. John's* river, about 30 miles long and 8 or 10 broad, and in some places 40 fathoms deep.

The principal capes are *Cape Canso*, on the west side of the entrance into *Chedabucto* Bay, and *Cape Sables*, on the east side of the entrance into the bay of *Fundy*.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] *Halifax* is the capital of the province of *Nova Scotia*. It stands on *Chebueto* Bay, commodiously situated for the fishery, and has a communication with other parts of this province and *New Brunswick*, by land and water carriage. It has a good harbour, where a small squadron of ships of war lies during the winter, and in the summer protects the fishery. The town has an entrenchment, and is strengthened with forts of timber. It is said to contain 15 or 16,000 inhabitants.

Shelburne (*Nova Scotia*) on *Port Roseway*, near *Cape Sables*, was supposed, in 1783, to 600 families. Since that time it has become less populous. *Guyiborough*, (*Nova Scotia*) formerly called *Manchester*, situated on *Chedabucto* Bay, about 10 leagues N. W. of *Cape Canso*, contained, in 1783, about 250 families. *Rawdon* (*Nova Scotia*) 40 miles from *Halifax*, has about 60 houses. *Annapolis* (*Nova Scotia*) on the east side of *Fundy* Bay, has one of the finest harbours in the world. In other respects it is a poor, inconsiderable place.

Fredricktown, about 90 miles up *St. John's* River, is the capital of the province of *New Brunswick*.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] During a great part of the year, the atmosphere is clouded with thick fog, which renders it unhealthy for the inhabitants; and four or five months it is intensely cold. A great part of this country lies in forest, and the soil, in many parts, is thin and barren. On the banks of the rivers, however, and some other parts, the soil is very good, producing large crops of English grass, hemp, and flax: many of the bays, and salt water rivers, and some parts of the sea coast, are bordered with fine tracts of salt marsh. The inhabitants do not raise provisions enough for home consumption,

FORTS.] These are Fort Edward at Windsor, capable of containing 200 men; Annapolis, in its present state, 100; Cumberland, 300; Fort Howe, on St. John's River, 100; besides which there are barracks, inclosed in a stockade at Cornwallis, for about 50 men.

INDIANS.] These are the Micmacks, and the tribe called the Marechites. The former inhabit the eastern shore, between Halifax and Cape Breton; between Cumberland county and the north-east coast of the province, towards Chaleur Bay; about the heads of the rivers which run through the counties of Hants and King's County; and between Cape Sable and Annapolis Royal. This tribe is supposed to have about 300 fighting men. The Marechites inhabit the river St. John, and around Passamaquoddy Bay; are estimated at 140 fighting men; they are much superior in all respects to the Micmacks.

ANIMALS.] The same as in the United States, though much less numerous.

TRADE.] The exports from Great Britain to this country consist chiefly of linen and woollen cloths, and other necessaries for wear, of fishing tackle, and rigging for ships. The amount of exports, at an average of three years, before the new settlements, was about 26,500*l*. The only articles obtained in exchange are, timber and the produce of the fishery, which, at a like average, amounted to 38,000*l*. But from the late increase of inhabitants, it is supposed that they will now erect saw mills, and endeavour to supply the West India islands with lumber of every kind, as well as the produce of the fishery, which will be a profitable article to both countries. The whole population of Nova Scotia and the islands adjoining, is estimated at 50,000. This estimate it is supposed is considerably too large. Recent accounts of these settlements represent them as in a declining state, having great numbers of the houses built in the new towns uninhabited, and considerably reduced in value.

HISTORY.] Notwithstanding the forbidding appearance of this country, it was here that some of the first European settlements were made. The first grant of lands in it was given by James I. to his secretary, Sir William Alexander, from whom it had the name of Nova Scotia, or New Scotland. Since then it has frequently changed hands, from one private proprietor to another, and from the French to the English nation backward and forward. It was not confirmed to the English, till the peace of Utrecht, and their design in acquiring it does not seem to have arisen so much from any prospect of direct profit to be obtained by it, as from an apprehension that the French, by possessing this province, might have had it in their power to annoy the other British settlements. Upon this principle, 3000 families were transported in 1749, at the charge of the government, into this country, who built and settled the town of Halifax.

ISLAND OF ST. JOHN.

THIS island lies in the gulf of St. Lawrence, near the northern coast of the province of Nova Scotia, and is about 60 miles long, and 30 or 40 broad. It has several fine rivers, a rich soil, and is pleasantly situated. Charlotte-town is its principal town, and is the residence of the lieutenant-governor, who is the chief officer on the island. The number of inhabitants are estimated at about 5000. Upon the reduction of Cape Breton, in 1745, the inhabitants of this island, amounting to about 4000, submitted quietly to the British arms. While the French possessed this island, they improved it to so much advantage, that it was called the granary of Canada, which it furnished with great plenty of corn, as well as beef and pork. It is attached to the province of Nova Scotia.

NEWFOUNDLAND ISLAND.

NEWFOUNDLAND is situated to the east of the gulf of St. Lawrence, between 46 and 52 degrees of north latitude, and between 53 and 59 degrees west long. separated from Labrador, or New Britain, by the straits of Belleisle; and from Canada, by the bay of St. Lawrence; being 550 miles long and 200 broad. The coasts are extremely subject to fogs, attended with almost continual storms of snow and sleet, the sky being usually overcast. From the soil of this island the British reap no great advantage, for the cold is long continued and severe; and the summer heat, though violent, warms it not enough to produce any thing valuable; for the soil, at least in those parts of the island which have been explored, is rocky and barren. However, it is watered by several good rivers, and has many large and good harbours. This island, whenever the continent shall come to fail of timber, convenient to navigation (which on the sea coast perhaps will be at no very remote period,) it is said, will afford a large supply for masts, yards, and all sorts of lumber for the West India trade. But what at present it is chiefly valuable for, is the great fishery of cod carried on upon those shoals, which are called the Banks of Newfoundland. Great Britain and North America, at the lowest computation, annually employ 3000 sail of small craft in this fishery; on board of which, and on shore to cure and pack the fish, are upwards of 100,000 hands; so that this fishery is not only a very valuable branch of trade to the merchant, but a source of livelihood to so many thousands of poor people, and a most excellent nursery to the royal navy. This fishery is computed to increase the national stock 300,000l. a year in gold and silver, remitted for the cod sold in the North, in Spain, Portugal, Italy, and the Levant. The plenty of cod, both on the great bank and the lesser ones, which lie to the east and south-east of this island, is inconceivable; and not only cod, but several other species of fish, are caught there in abundance; all of which are nearly in an equal plenty along the shores of Newfoundland, Nova Scotia, New England, and the isle of Cape Breton; and very profitable fisheries are carried on upon all their coasts.

This island, after various disputes about the property, was entirely ceded to England by the treaty of Utrecht, in 1713; but the French were left at liberty to dry their nets

on the northern shores of the island; and by the treaty of 1763, they were permitted to fish in the gulf of St. Lawrence, but with this limitation, that they should not approach within three leagues of any of the coasts belonging to England. The small islands of St. Pierre and Miquelon, situated to the southward of Newfoundland, were also ceded to the French, who stipulated to erect no fortifications on these islands, nor to keep more than 50 soldiers to enforce the police. By the last treaty of peace, the French are to enjoy the fisheries on the north and on the west coasts of the island; and the inhabitants of the United States are allowed the same privileges in fishing as before their independence. The chief towns in Newfoundland are, Placentia, Bonavista, and St. John's: but not above 1000 families remain here in winter. A small squadron of men of war are sent out every spring to protect the fisheries and inhabitants, the admiral of which, for the time being, is governor of the island, besides whom there are two lieutenant governors, one at Placentia, and the other at St. John's.

THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

<i>Miles.</i>	<i>Degrees.</i>
Length 1250 }	between { 31° and 46° North latitude.
Breadth 1040 }	8° E. and 24° W. longitude from Philadelphia.
	64° and 96° W. longitude from London.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north and east by British America, or the provinces of Upper and Lower Canada, and New Brunswick; south-east, by the Atlantic Ocean; south, by East and West Florida; west, by the river Mississippi.

In the treaty of peace, concluded in 1783, the limits of the American United States are more particularly defined in the words following: "And that all disputes which might arise in future on the subject of the boundaries of the said United States may be prevented, it is hereby agreed and declared, that the following are and shall be their boundaries, viz. From the north-west angle of Nova Scotia, viz. that angle which is formed by a line drawn due north from the source of St. Croix River to the Highlands, along the said Highlands, which divide those rivers that empty themselves into the river St. Lawrence, from those which fall into the Atlantic Ocean, to the north-westernmost head of Connecticut river; thence down along the middle of that river to the forty-fifth degree of north latitude; from thence by a line due west on said latitude, until it strikes the river Iroquois or Cataraqui; thence along the middle of the said river into Lake Ontario; through the middle of said lake, until it strikes the communication by water between that lake and Lake Erie; thence along the middle of said communication into Lake Erie, through the middle of said lake, until it arrives at the water communication between that lake and Lake Huron; thence through the middle of said lake to the water communication between that lake and Lake Superior; thence through Lake Superior, northward of the Isles Royal and Phillippeaux, to the Long Lake; thence through the middle of said Long Lake, and the water communication between it and the Lake of the Woods, to the said Lake of the Woods; thence thro' the said lake to the most north-western point thereof, and from thence, on a due west course,

THE UNITED STATES.

course, to the River Mississippi; thence by a line to be drawn along the middle of said River Mississippi, until it shall intersect the northernmost part of the thirty-first degree of north latitude.

“ South, by a line to be drawn due east from the determination of the line last-mentioned, in the latitude of thirty-one degrees north of the equator, to the middle of the River Apalachicola, or Catahouche; thence along the middle thereof to its junction with the Flint River; thence straight to the head of St. Mary’s River; and thence down along the middle of St. Mary’s River to the Atlantic Ocean.

“ East, by a line to be drawn along the middle of the River St. Croix, from its mouth, in the Bay of Fundy, to its source, and from its source directly north, to the aforesaid Highlands, which divide the rivers that fall into the Atlantic Ocean, from those which fall into the River St. Lawrence; comprehending all islands within twenty leagues of any part of the shores of the United States, and lying between lines to be drawn due east from the points where the aforesaid boundaries between Nova Scotia on the one part, and East Florida on the other, shall respectively touch the Bay of Fundy and the Atlantic Ocean, excepting such islands as now are, or heretofore have been, within the limits of the said province of Nova Scotia.”

The territory of the United States, according to Mr. Hutchins, contains, by computation, a million of square miles, in which are

	640,000,000 acres
Deduct for water	<u>51,000,000</u>

Acres of land in the United States	589,000,000
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That part of the United States comprehended between the west boundary line of Pennsylvania, on the east; the boundary line between Great Britain and the United States, extending from the River St. Croix to the north-west extremity of the Lake of the Woods, on the north; the River Mississippi, to the mouth of the Ohio, on the west; and the River Ohio on the south, to the aforementioned bounds of Pennsylvania, contains, by computation, about 411,000 square miles, in which are

	263,040,000 acres.
Deduct for water	<u>43,040,000</u>

To be disposed of by order of Congress, } when purchased of the Indians - }	220,000,000
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The whole of this immense extent of unappropriated western territory, containing, as above stated, 220,000,000 of acres, and several large tracts south of the Ohio,* have been, by the cession of some of the original thirteen states, and by the treaty of peace, transferred to the federal government, and are pledged as a fund for sinking the debt of the United States. Of this territory the Indians now possess a very large proportion. Mr. Jefferson, in his report to congress, Nov. 8, 1791, describes the boundary line between us and the Indians, as follows: “ Beginning at the mouth of the Cayahoga (which falls into the southernmost part of Lake Erie) and running up the river to the portage, between that and the Tuscaroro (or N. E.) branch of the Muskingum; then down the said branch to the forks, at the crossing place above Fort Lawrence; then westwardly, towards the portage of the Great Miami, to the main branch of that river; then down the Miami, to the fork of that river, next below the

* Ceded by North Carolina, South Carolina and Georgia, with certain reservations for the Indians and other purposes, as will be mentioned hereafter.

old fort, which was taken by the French in 1752; thence due west to the river De la Pauc (a branch of the Wabash) and down that river to the Wabash. So far the line is precisely determined, and cleared of the claims of the Indians. The tract comprehending the whole country within the above described line, the Wabash, the Ohio, and the western limits of Pennsylvania, contains about 55,000 square miles. How far on the western side of the Wabash, the southern boundary of the Indians has been defined, we know not. It is only understood, in general, that their title to the lower country, between that river and the Illinois, was formerly extinguished by the French, while in their possession.

Estimate of the number of acres of Water, north and westward of the River Ohio, within the territory of the United States.

	Acres.
In Lake Superior	21,952,780
Lake of the Woods	1,133,800
Lake Rain, &c.	165,200
Red Lake	551,000
Lake Michigan	10,368,000
Bay Puan	1,216,000
Lake Huron	5,009,920
Lake St. Clair	89,500
Lake Erie, western part	2,252,800
Sundry small lakes and rivers	301,000
	43,040,000

Estimate of the number of acres of Water within the Thirteen United States.

In the Lakes, &c. as above mentioned	43,040,000
In Lake Erie, westward of the line extended from the north-west corner of Pennsylvania, due north to the boundary between the British territory and the United States	410,000
In Lake Ontario	2,390,000
Lake Champlain	500,000
Chesapeake Bay	1,700,000
Albermarle Bay	330,000
Delaware Bay	630,000
All the rivers within the thirteen States, including the Ohio	2,000,000
	7,960,000
Total	51,000,000

LAKES.] It may in truth be said, that no part of the world is so well watered with springs, rivulets, rivers, and lakes, as the territory of the United States. By means of these various streams and collections of water, the whole country is chequered into islands and peninsulas. The United States, and indeed all parts of North America, seem to have been formed by nature for the most intimate union. The facilities of navigation.

navigation render the communication between the ports of Georgia and New Hampshire far more expeditious and practicable, than between those of Provence and Picardy, in France; Cornwall and Caithness, in Great Britain; or Galicia and Catalonia, in Spain. The canals proposed between Susquehannah and Delaware, between Patuxent and Elizabeth rivers, in Virginia, and between the Schuylkill and Susquehannah, will open a communication from the Carolinas to the western counties of Pennsylvania and New York. The improvements of the Potomak will give a passage from the southern states to the western parts of Virginia, Maryland, Pennsylvania, and even to the lakes. From Detroit to Alexandria, on the Potomak, six hundred and seven miles, are but two carrying places, which together do not exceed the distance of forty miles. The canals of Delaware and Chesapeake will open the communication from South Carolina to New Jersey, Delaware, the most populous parts of Pennsylvania, and the midland counties of New York. Were these and the proposed canal between Ashley and Cooper rivers in South Carolina, the canals in the northern parts of the state of New York, and those of Massachusetts and New Hampshire all opened, North America would thereby be converted into a cluster of large and fertile islands, communicating with each other with ease and little expence, and in many instances without the uncertainty or danger of the seas.

There is nothing in other parts of the globe, which resembles the prodigious chain of lakes in this part of the world. They may properly be termed inland seas of fresh water: and even those of the second or third class in magnitude are of larger circuit than the greatest lake in the eastern continent: Some of the most northern lakes belonging to the United States, have never been surveyed, or even visited by the white people; of course we have no description of them which can be relied on as accurate. Others have been partially surveyed, and their relative situation determined. The best account of them which we have been able to procure is as follows:

The Lake of the Woods, the most northern in the United States, is so called from the large quantities of wood growing on its banks; such as oaks, pines, firs, spruce, &c. This lake lies nearly east of the south end of Lake Winnepeck, and is supposed to be the source or conductor of one branch of the river Bourbon, if there be such a river. Its length from east to west is said to be about seventy miles, and in some places it is forty miles wide. The Killistnoe Indians encamp on its borders to fish and hunt. This lake is the communication between the Lakes Winnepeck and Bourbon, and Lake Superior.

Rainy, or Long Lake, lies east of the Lake of the Woods, and is said to be nearly an hundred miles long, and in no part more than twenty miles wide.

Eastward of this lake lie several small ones, which extend in a string to the great carrying place, and thence into Lake Superior. Between these little lakes are several carrying places, which render the trade to the north-west difficult, and exceedingly tedious, as it takes two years to make one voyage from Michillimackinac to these parts.

Lake Superior, formerly termed the Upper Lake, from its northern situation, is so called from its magnitude, it being the largest on the continent. It may justly be termed the Caspian of America, and is supposed to be the largest body of fresh water on the globe. According to the French charts, it is 1500 miles in circumference. A great part of the coast is bounded by rocks and uneven ground. The water is pure and transparent, and appears generally throughout the lake, to lie upon a bed of huge rocks. It has been remarked, in regard to the waters of this lake, with how much truth I pretend not to say, that although their surface, during the heat of the summer,

is impregnated with no small degree of warmth, yet on letting down a cup to the depth of about a fathom, the water drawn from thence is cool and refreshing.

The situation of this lake, from the most accurate observations which have come to our knowledge, lies between forty-six and fifty degrees of north latitude, and between nine and eighteen degrees of west longitude from the meridian of Philadelphia.

There are many islands in this lake, two of them have each land enough, if proper for cultivation, to form a considerable province; especially Isle Royal, which is not less than an hundred miles long, and in many places forty broad. The natives suppose these islands are the residence of the Great Spirit.

Two large rivers empty themselves into this lake, on the north and north-east side; one is called the Nipigon, which leads to a tribe of the Chipeways, who inhabit a lake of the same name, and the other is the Michipicooton river, the source of which is towards James Bay, from whence there is said to be but a short portage to another river, which empties itself into that bay.

Not far from the Nipigon is a small river, that, just before it enters the lake, has a perpendicular fall from the top of a mountain, of more than a hundred feet. It is very narrow, and appears at a distance like a white garter suspended in the air. There are upwards of thirty other rivers, which empty into this lake, some of which are of considerable size. On the south side of it is a remarkable point or cape of about sixty miles in length, called Point Chegomegan. About an hundred miles west of this cape, a considerable river falls into the lake, the head of which is composed of a great assemblage of small streams. This river is remarkable for the abundance of virgin copper that is found on and near its banks. Many small islands, particularly on the eastern shores, abound with copper ore lying in beds, with the appearance of copperas. This metal might be easily made a very advantageous article of commerce. This lake abounds with fish, particularly trout and sturgeon; the former weigh from twelve to fifty pounds, and are caught almost any season of the year in great plenty. Storms affect this lake as much as they do the Atlantic Ocean; the waves run as high, and the navigation is equally dangerous. It discharges its waters from the south-east corner, through the Straits of St. Marie, which are about forty miles long. Near the upper end of these straits is a rapid, which, though it is impossible for canoes to ascend, yet, when conducted by careful pilots, may be descended without danger.

Though Lake Superior is supplied by near forty rivers, many of which are large, yet it does not appear that one tenth part of the waters which are conveyed into it by these rivers, is discharged by the above-mentioned strait. Such a superabundance of water can be disposed of only by evaporation.* The entrance into this lake from the

* That such a superabundance of water should be disposed of by evaporation is no singular circumstance. "There are some seas" says an ingenious correspondent, who has not obliged me with his name, "in which there is a pretty just balance between the waters received from rivers, brooks, &c. and the waste by evaporation. Of this the Caspian Sea, in Asia, affords an instance; which, though it receives several large rivers, has no outlet. There are others, (to speak in borrowed language) whose expence exceeds their income; and these would soon become bankrupt, were it not for the supplies which they constantly receive from larger collections of water, with which they are connected; such are the Black and Mediterranean seas; into the former of which there is a constant current from the Mediterranean, through the Bosphorus of Thrace; and into the latter, from the Atlantic, through the Straits of Gibraltar. Others again derive more from their tributary streams than they lose by evaporation. These give rise to large rivers. Of this kind are the Dambea in Africa, the Winipiseogee in New Hampshire, Lake Superior, and other waters in North America; and the quantity they discharge is only the difference between the influx and the evaporation. It is observeable,

the Straits of St. Marie affords one of the most pleasing prospects in the world. On the left may be seen many beautiful little islands that extend a considerable way before you; and on the right, an agreeable succession of small points of land that project a little way into the water, and contribute, with the islands, to render this delightful basin calm, and secure from those tempestuous winds by which the adjoining lake is frequently troubled.

Lake Huron, into which you enter through the Straits of St. Marie, is next in magnitude to Lake Superior. It lies between $43^{\circ} 30'$ and $46^{\circ} 30'$ of north latitude, and between six and eight degrees west longitude. Its circumference is about one thousand miles. On the north side of this lake is an island called Manataulin, signifying a place of spirits, and is considered as sacred by the Indians. On the south-west part of this lake is Saganaum Bay, about eighty miles in length, and about eighteen or twenty miles broad. Thunder Bay, so called from the thunder that is frequently heard here, lies about half way between Saganaum Bay and the north-west corner of the lake. It is about nine miles across either way. The fish are the same as in Lake Superior. At the north-west corner this lake communicates with Lake Michigan, by the Straits of Michillimackinac.

The Chipeway Indians live scattered around this lake; particularly near Saganaum Bay. On its banks are found amazing quantities of sand cherries.

Michigan Lake lies between latitude $42^{\circ} 10'$ and $46^{\circ} 30'$ north; and between 11° and 13° west long. from Philadelphia. Its computed length is 280 miles from north to south; its breadth from sixty to seventy miles. It is navigable for shipping of any burthen; and at the north-eastern part communicates with Lake Huron, by a strait six miles broad, on the south side of which stands fort Michillimackinac, which is the name of the strait. In this lake are several kinds of fish, particularly trout of an excellent quality, weighing from twenty to sixty pounds, and some have been taken in the Straits of Michillimackinac, of ninety pounds. Westward of this lake are large meadows, said to extend to the Mississippi. It receives a number of rivers from the west and east, among which is the river St. Joseph, very rapid and full of islands; it springs from a number of small lakes, a little to the north-west of the Miami village, and runs north-west into the south-east part of the lake. On the north side of this river is fort St. Joseph, from which there is a road, bearing north of east, to Detroit. The Powtewatamie Indians, who have about 200 fighting men, inhabit this river opposite fort St. Joseph.

Between Lake Michigan on the west, and Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and the west end of Erie on the east, is a fine tract of country, peninsulated, more than 250 miles in length, and from 150 to 200 in breadth. The banks of the lakes, for a few miles inland, are sandy and barren, producing a few pines, shrub oaks, and cedars. Back of this, from either lake, the timber is heavy and good, and the soil luxuriant.

Lake St. Clair lies about half way between Lake Huron and Lake Erie, and is about ninety miles in circumference. It receives the waters of the three great lakes, Superior, Michigan, and Huron, and discharges them through the river or strait, called Detroit, (which is in French, the strait) into Lake Erie. This lake is of an oval

observable, that on the shores the evaporation is much greater than at a distance from them on the ocean. The remarkable cluster of lakes in the middle of North America, of which Lake Superior is one, was doubtless designed, by a wise Providence, to furnish the interior parts of the country with that supply of vapours, without which, like the interior parts of Africa, they must have been a mere desert. It may be thought equally surprizing that there should be any water at all discharged from them, as that the quantity should bear so small a proportion to what they receive."

form, and navigable for large vessels. The fort of Detroit is situated on the western bank of the river of the same name, about nine miles below Lake St. Clair. The settlements are extended on both sides of the strait or river for many miles towards Lake Erie, and some few above the fort.

Lake Erie is situated between forty-one and forty-three degrees of north latitude, and between $3^{\circ} 40'$ and 8° degrees west longitude. It is nearly three hundred miles long from east to west, and about forty in its broadest part. A point of land projects from the north side into this lake, several miles, towards the south-east, called Long Point. The islands and banks towards the west end of the lake are so infested with rattle-snakes, as to render it dangerous to land on them. The lake is covered near the banks of the islands with the large pond lily, the leaves of which lie on the surface of the water so thick as to cover it entirely for many acres together; on these, in the summer season, lie myriads of water snakes basking in the sun. Of the venomous serpents which infest this lake, the hissing snake is the most remarkable: it is about eighteen inches long, small, and speckled. When you approach it, it flattens itself in a moment, and its spots, which are of various colours, become visibly brighter through rage; at the same time it blows from its mouth, with great force, a subtle wind, said to be of a nauseous smell; and if drawn in with the breath of the unwary traveller, will infallibly bring on a decline, that in a few months must prove mortal. No remedy has yet been found to counteract its baneful influence. This lake is of a more dangerous navigation than any of the others, on account of the craggy rocks which project into the water, in a perpendicular direction, many miles together from the northern shore, affording no shelter from storms.

Presque Isle is on the south-east shore of this lake, about lat. $42^{\circ} 10'$. From this to Fort Le Beuf, on French Creek, is a portage of $15\frac{1}{2}$ miles. About twenty miles north-east of this is another portage of $9\frac{1}{4}$ miles, between Chatoughque Creek, emptying into Lake Erie, and Chatoughque Lake, a water of Allegany river.

Fort Erie stands on the northern shore of Lake Erie, and the west bank of Niagara river, in Upper Canada. This lake, at its north-east end, communicates with Lake Ontario by the river Niagara, which runs from south to north, about thirty miles, including its windings, embracing in its course Grand Island and receiving Tonawanta Creek, from the east. About the middle of this river are the celebrated falls of Niagara, which are reckoned one of the greatest natural curiosities in the world. The waters which supply the river Niagara rise near two thousand miles to the north-west, and passing through the Lakes Superior, Michigan, Huron, and Erie, receiving in their course constant accumulations, at length, with astonishing grandeur, rush down a stupendous precipice of 150 feet perpendicular; and in a strong rapid, that extends to the distance of eight or nine miles below, fall near as much more; the river then loses itself in Lake Ontario. The noise of these falls, in a clear day and fair wind, may be heard between forty and fifty miles. When the water strikes the bottom its spray rises a great height in the air, occasioning a thick cloud of vapours, in which, when the sun shines, may be seen, morning and evening, a beautiful rainbow. Fort Niagara is situated on the east side of Niagara river, at its entrance into Lake Ontario. This fort, and that at Detroit, contrary to the treaty of 1783, are yet in the possession of the British Government.

Lake Ontario is situated between forty-three and forty-five degrees north latitude, and between one and five degrees west longitude. Its form is nearly oval. Its greatest length is from south-west to north-east, and its circumference about six hundred miles. It abounds with fish of an excellent flavour, among which are the Oswego

baſs, weighing three or four pounds. It receives the waters of the Chenefſee river from the ſouth, and of Onondago, at Fort Ofwego, from the ſouth-eaſt, by which it communicates, through Lake Oneida and Wood Creek, with Mohawk river. On the north-eaſt, this lake diſcharges itſelf through the river Cataraqui, (which at Montreal, takes the name of St. Lawrence) into the Atlantic-Ocean.

About eight miles from the weſt end of Lake Ontario is a curious cavern, which the Meſſiſaugas Indians call *Manito' ab wigwam*, or *houſe of the Devil*. The mountains which border on the lake, at this place, break off abruptly, and form a precipice of 200 feet perpendicular deſcent; at the bottom of which the cavern begins. The firſt opening is large enough for three men conveniently to walk abreſt. It continues of this bigneſs for ſeventy yards in a horizontal direction. Then it falls almoſt perpendicularly fifty yards, which may be deſcended by irregular ſteps from one to four feet diſtant from each other. It then continues forty yards horizontally, at the end of which is another perpendicular deſcent, down which there are no ſteps. The cold here is intense. In ſpring and autumn, there are, once in about a week, exploſions from this cavern, which ſhake the ground for ſixteen miles round.

Lake Champlain is next in ſize to Lake Ontario, and lies nearly eaſt from it, forming a part of the dividing line between the State of New York and the State of Vermont. It took its name from a French governor, whoſe name was Champlain, who was drowned in it. It was before called Corlaer's Lake. It is about eighty miles in length from north to ſouth, and in its broadest part fourteen. It is well ſtored with fiſh, and the land on its borders, and on the banks of its rivers, is good. Crown Point and Ticonderoga are ſituated on the banks of this lake, near the ſouthern part of it.

Lake George lies to the ſouthward of Champlain, and is a moſt clear, beautiful collection of water, thirty-fix miles long and from one to ſeven miles wide. It embosoms more than 200 iſlands, ſome ſay 365; very few of which are any thing more than barren rock, covered with heath, and a few cedar, ſpruce, and hemlock trees, and ſhrubs, and abundance of rattle-ſnakes. On each ſide it is ſkirted by prodigious mountains, from which large quantities of red cedar are every year carried to New York for ſhip timber. The lake is full of fiſhes, and ſome of the beſt kind; among which are the black Ofwego baſs and large ſpeckled trouts. The water of this lake is about 100 feet above the level of Lake Champlain. The portage between the two lakes is one mile and a half; but with a ſmall expence might be reduced to ſixty yards; and with one or two locks might be made navigable through for batteaux. This lake, in the French charts, is called Lake St. Sacrament; and it is ſaid that the Roman Catholics, in former times, were at the pains to procure this water for ſacramental uſes in all their churches in Canada: hence probably it derived its name.

RIVERS.] The Miſſiſſippi receives the waters of the Ohio and Illinois, and their numerous branches from the eaſt; and of the Miſſouri and other rivers from the weſt. Theſe mighty ſtreams united, are borne down with increaſing majeſty, through vaſt foreſts and meadows, and diſcharged into the Gulf of Mexico. The great length and uncommon depth of this river, ſays Mr. Hutchins, and the exceſſive muddineſs and ſalubrious quality of its waters, after its junction with the Miſſouri, are very ſingular.*

* In a half pint tumbler of this water has been found a ſediment of one inch of impalpable marle-like ſubſtance. It is, notwithstanding, extremely wholeſome and well taſted, and very cool in the hoteſt ſeaſons of the year; the rowers, who are there employed, drink of it when they are in the freest perſpiration, and never receive any bad effects from it. The inhabitants of New Orleans uſe no other water than that of the river, which, by being kept in jars, becomes perfectly clear.

The direction of the channel is so crooked, that from New Orleans to the mouth of the Ohio, a distance which does not exceed four hundred and sixty miles in a strait line, is about eight hundred and fifty-six by water. It may be shortened at least two hundred and fifty miles by cutting across eight or ten necks of land, some of which are not thirty yards wide. Charlevoix relates that in the year 1722, at Point Coupee, or Cut Point, the river made a great turn, and some Canadians, by deepening the channel of a small brook, diverted the waters of the river into it. The impetuosity of the stream was so violent, and the soil of so rich and loose a quality, that in a short time the point was entirely cut through, and travellers saved fourteen leagues of their voyage. The old bed has no water in it, the times of the periodical overflowings only excepted. The new channel has been since founded with a line of thirty fathoms, without finding bottom. Several other points, of great extent, have, in like manner, been since cut off, and the river diverted into new channels.

In the spring floods the Mississippi is very high, and the current so strong that it is with difficulty it can be ascended; but this disadvantage is remedied in some measure by eddies or counter currents, which are generally found in the bends close to the banks of the river, and assist the ascending boats. The current at this season descends at the rate of about five miles an hour. In autumn, when the waters are low, it does not run faster than two miles, but it is rapid in such parts of the river as have clusters of islands, shoals, and sand banks. The circumference of many of these shoals being several miles, the voyage is longer and in some parts more dangerous than in the spring. The merchandize necessary for the commerce of the upper settlements on or near the Mississippi, is conveyed in the spring and autumn in batteaux, rowed by eighteen or twenty men, and carrying about forty tons. From New Orleans to the Illinois, the voyage is commonly performed in eight or ten weeks. A prodigious number of islands, some of which are of great extent, intersperse that mighty river. Its waters, after overflowing its banks below the river Iberville on the east, and the river Rouge on the west, never return within them again, there being many outlets or streams, by which they are conducted into the bay of Mexico, more especially on the west side of the Mississippi, dividing the country into numerous islands. These singularities distinguish it from every other known river in the world. Below the Iberville, the land begins to be very low on both sides of the river, across the country, and gradually declines as it approaches nearer to the sea. The island of New Orleans, and the lands opposite, are to all appearance of no long date; for in digging ever so little below the surface, you find water and great quantities of trees. The many beeches and breakers, as well as inlets, which have arisen out of the channel within the last half century, at the several mouths of the river, are convincing proofs that this peninsula was wholly formed in the same manner. And it is certain that when La Salle sailed down the Mississippi to the sea, the opening of that river was very different from what it is at present.

The nearer you approach to the sea, this truth becomes more striking. The bars that cross most of these small channels, opened by the current, have been multiplied by means of the trees carried down with the streams; one of which, stopped by its roots or branches in a shallow part, is sufficient to obstruct the passage of thousands more, and to fix them at the same place. Astonishing collections of trees are daily seen in passing between the Balize and the Missouri. No human force is sufficient to remove them, and the mud carried down by the river serves to bind and cement them together. They are gradually covered, and every inundation not only extends their length and breadth, but adds another layer to their height. In less than ten years time,

canes, shrubs, and aquatic timber grow on them, and form points and islands, which forcibly shift the bed of the river.

Nothing can be asserted with certainty, respecting the length of this river. Its source is not known, but supposed to be upwards of three thousand miles from the sea as the river runs. We only know, that from St. Antony's falls, in lat. 45° , it glides with a pleasant clear current, and receives many large and very extensive tributary streams before its junction with the Missouri, without greatly increasing the breadth of the Mississippi, though they do its depth and rapidity. The muddy waters of the Missouri discolour the lower part of the river, till it empties into the Bay of Mexico. The Missouri is a longer, broader, and deeper river than the Mississippi, and affords a more extensive navigation; it is, in fact, the principal river, contributing more to the common stream than does the Mississippi. It has been attended by French traders about twelve or thirteen hundred miles, and from the depth of water, and breadth of the river at that distance, it appeared to be navigable many miles further.

From the Missouri river, to nearly opposite the Ohio, the western bank of the Mississippi, is, some few places excepted, higher than the eastern. From Mine au fer, to the Iberville, the eastern bank is higher than the western, on which there is not a single discernible rising or eminence, the distance of seven hundred and fifty miles. From the Iberville to the sea, there are no eminences on either side, though the eastern bank appears rather the highest of the two, as far as the English turn. Thence the banks gradually diminish in height to the mouths of the river, where they are but a few feet higher than the common surface of the water.

The slime which the annual floods of the river Mississippi leaves on the surface of the adjacent shores, may be compared with that of the Nile, which deposits a similar manure, and for many centuries past has insured the fertility of Egypt. When its banks shall have been cultivated, as the excellency of its soil and temperature of the climate deserve, its population will equal that of any other part of the world. The trade, wealth, and power of America, may, at some future period, depend, and perhaps center upon the Mississippi. This also resembles the Nile in the number of its mouths, all issuing into a sea that may be compared to the Mediterranean, which is bounded on the north and south by the two continents of Europe and Africa, as the Mexican bay is by North and South America. The smaller mouths of this river might be easily stopped up, by means of those floating trees with which the river, during the floods, is always covered. The whole force of the channel being united, the only opening then left would probably grow deep, and the bar be removed.

Whoever for a moment will cast his eye over a map of the town of New Orleans, and the immense country around it, and view its advantageous situation, must be convinced that it, or some place near it, must, in process of time, become one of the greatest marts in the world.

The falls of St. Anthony, in about latitude 45° , received their name from Father Lewis Hennipin, a French missionary, who travelled into these parts about the year 1680, and was the first European ever seen by the natives. The whole river, which is more than 250 yards wide, falls perpendicularly about thirty feet, and forms a most pleasing cataract. The rapids below, in the space of three hundred yards, render the descent considerably greater; so that when viewed at a distance, they appear to be much higher than they really are. In the middle of the falls is a small island, about forty feet broad, and somewhat longer, on which grow a few cragged hemlock and spruce trees; and about half way between this island and the eastern shore is a rock, lying at the very edge of the fall, in an oblique position, five or six feet broad, and

thirty or forty long. These falls are peculiarly situated, as they are approachable without the least obstruction from any intervening hill or precipice, which cannot be said of any other considerable fall, perhaps in the world. The country around is exceedingly beautiful. It is not an uninterrupted plain, where the eye finds no relief, but composed of many gentle ascents, which in the spring and summer are covered with verdure, and interspersed with little groves, that give a pleasing variety to the prospect.

A little distance below the falls is a small island of about an acre and an half, on which grow a great number of oak trees, almost all the branches of which, able to bear the weight, are, in the proper season of the year, loaded with eagle's nests. Their instinctive wisdom has taught them to choose this place, as it is secure, on account of the rapids above, from the attacks of either man or beast.

From the best accounts that can be obtained from the Indians, we learn that the four most capital rivers on the continent of North America, viz. the St. Lawrence, the Mississippi, the River Bourbon, and the Oregon, or the river of the West, have their sources in the same neighbourhood. The waters of the three former are said to be within thirty miles of each other; the latter is rather farther west.

This shews that these parts are the highest lands in North America; and it is an instance not to be paralleled in the other three quarters of the globe, that four rivers of such magnitude should take their rise together, and each, after running separate courses, discharge their waters into different oceans, at the distance of more than two thousand miles from their sources. For in their passage from this spot to the bay of St. Lawrence, east; to the bay of Mexico, south; to Hudson's Bay, north; and to the bay at the straits of Annian, west; where the river Oregon is supposed to empty, each of them traverses upwards of two thousand miles.

The Ohio is a most beautiful river. Its current gentle, waters clear, and bosom smooth and unbroken by rocks and rapids, a single instance only excepted. It is one quarter of a mile wide at Fort Pitt; five hundred yards at the mouth of the Great Kanaway; 1200 yards at Louisville; and the rapids, half a mile, in some few places below Louisville: but its general breadth does not exceed 600 yards. In some places its width is not 400, and in one place particularly, far below the rapids, it is less than 300. Its breadth in no one place exceeds 1200 yards, and at its junction with the Mississippi, neither river is more than 900 yards wide.*

Its length, as measured according to its meanders by Capt. Hutchins, is as follows.

From Fort Pitt	Miles.		Miles.
To Log's Town	18 $\frac{1}{2}$	To Hockhocking	16
Big Beaver Creek	10 $\frac{3}{4}$	Great Kanaway	82 $\frac{1}{2}$
Little Beaver Creek	13 $\frac{1}{2}$	Guaudot	43 $\frac{3}{4}$
Yellow Creek	11 $\frac{3}{4}$	Sandy Creek	14 $\frac{1}{2}$
Two Creeks	21 $\frac{3}{4}$	Sioto	48 $\frac{3}{4}$
Long Reach	53 $\frac{3}{4}$	To Little Miami	126 $\frac{1}{4}$
End Long Reach	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	Licking Creek	8
Muskingum	26 $\frac{1}{2}$	Great Miami	26 $\frac{3}{4}$
Little Kanaway	12 $\frac{1}{4}$	Big Bones	32 $\frac{1}{2}$

* The alterations in the description of this river were received by the Author from Col. George Morgan of New Jersey, a gentleman of accurate observation, and who has repeatedly passed this river from Pittsburg to its junction with the Mississippi.

	Miles.		Miles.
To Kentucky	44 $\frac{1}{4}$	To Big Cave	42 $\frac{1}{4}$
Rapids	77 $\frac{1}{4}$	Shawnee River	52 $\frac{1}{4}$
Low Country	155 $\frac{3}{4}$	Cherokee River	13
Buffalo River	64 $\frac{1}{2}$	Massac	11
Wabash	97 $\frac{1}{4}$	Mississippi	46
			1188

In common winter and spring floods, it affords 30 or 40 feet water to Louisville, 25 or 30 feet to La Tarte's rapids, forty miles above the mouth of the great Kanaway, and a sufficiency at all times for light batteaux and canoes to Fort Pitt. The rapids are in latitude $38^{\circ} 8'$. The inundations of this river begin about the last of March, and subside in July, although they frequently happen in other months, so that boats which carry 300 barrels of flour, from the Monongahela, or Youhiogany, above Pittsburg, have seldom long to wait for water only. During these floods a first rate man of war may be carried from Louisville to New Orleans, if the sudden turns of the river and the strength of its current will admit a safe stowage; and it is the opinion of Col. Morgan, who has had all the means of information, that a vessel properly built for the sea, to draw 12 feet water, when loaded, and carrying from 12 to 1600 barrels of flour, may be more easily, cheaply, and safely navigated from Pittsburg to the sea, than those now in use; and that this matter only requires one man of capacity and enterprise to ascertain it. He observes, that a vessel intended to be rigged as a brigantine, snow, or ship, should be double decked, take her masts on deck, and be rowed to the Iberville, below which are no islands, or to New Orleans, with 20 men, so as to afford reliefs of 10 and 10 in the night.—Such a vessel, without the use of oars, he says, would float to New Orleans, from Pittsburg, 20 times in 24 hours. If this be so, what agreeable prospects are presented to our brethren and fellow citizens in the western country.

The rapids at Louisville descend about 10 feet in a length of a mile and a half. The bed of the river there is a solid rock, and is divided by an island into two branches, the southern of which is about two hundred yards wide, but impassable in dry seasons. The bed of the northern branch is worn into channels by the constant course of the water, and attrition of the pebble stones carried on with that, so as to be passable for batteaux through the greater part of the year. Yet it is thought that the southern arm may be most easily opened for constant navigation. The rise of the waters in these rapids does not exceed 20 or 25 feet. We have a fort, situated at the head of the falls. The ground on the south side rises very gradually.

At Fort Pitt the river Ohio loses its name, branching into the Monongahela and Allegany.

The Monongahela is four hundred yards wide at its mouth. From thence is twelve or fifteen miles to the mouth of Yohogany, where it is three hundred yards wide. Thence to Redstone by water is fifty miles, by land thirty. Then to the mouth of Cheat river, by water forty miles, by land twenty-eight, the width continuing at three hundred yards, and the navigation good for boats. Thence the width is about two hundred yards to the western fork, fifty miles higher, and the navigation frequently interrupted by rapids; which, however, with a swell of two or three feet, become very passable for boats. It then admits light boats, except in dry seasons, sixty-five miles further, to the head of Tygart's valley, presenting only some small rapids and falls of one or two feet perpendicular, and lessening in its width to twenty yards. The Western fork is navigable in the winter ten or fifteen miles towards the northern of the Little Kanaway, and

will admit a good waggon road to it. The Yohogany is the principal branch of this river. It passes through the Laurel mountain, about thirty miles from its mouth; is, so far, from three hundred to one hundred and fifty yards wide, and the navigation much obstructed in dry weather by rapids and shoals. In its passage through the mountain it makes very great falls, admitting no navigation for ten miles, to the Turkey foot. Thence to the Great Crossing, about twenty miles, it is again navigable, except in dry seasons, and at this place is two hundred yards wide. The sources of this river are divided from those of the Patomak by the Allegany mountain. From the falls, where it intersects the Laurel mountain, to Fort Cumberland, the head of the navigation on the Patomak, is forty miles of very mountainous road. Will's creek, at the mouth of which was Fort Cumberland, is thirty or forty yards wide, but affords no navigation as yet. Cheat river, another considerable branch of the Monongahela, is two hundred yards wide at its mouth, and one hundred yards at the Dunkard's settlement, fifty miles higher. It is navigable for boats, except in dry seasons. The boundary between Virginia and Pennsylvania crosses it about three or four miles above its mouth.

The Allegany river affords navigation at all seasons for light batteaux to Venango; at the mouth of French creek, where it is two hundred yards wide; and it is practised even to Le Bœuf, from whence there is a portage of fifteen miles and a half to Presque Isle on Lake Erie.

The country watered by the Mississippi and its eastern branches constitutes five-eighths of the United States; two of which five-eighths are occupied by the Ohio and its waters: the residuary streams, which run into the Gulf of Mexico, the Atlantic, and the St. Lawrence, water the remaining three-eighths.

Before we quit the subject of the western waters, we will take a view of their principal connections with the Atlantic. These are four, the Hudson's river, the Patomak, St. Lawrence, and Mississippi. Down the last will pass all the heavy commodities. But the navigation through the Gulf of Mexico is so dangerous, and that up the Mississippi so difficult and tedious, that it is thought probable that European merchandize will not be conveyed through that channel. It is most likely that flour, timber, and other heavy articles will be floated on rafts, which will themselves be an article for sale as well as their loading, the navigators returning by land, as at present. There will therefore be a competition between the Hudson, the Patomak, and the St. Lawrence rivers, for the residue of the commerce of all the country westward of Lake Erie, on the waters of the lakes of the Ohio, and upper parts of Mississippi. To go to New York, that part of the trade which comes from the lakes or their waters, must first be brought into Lake Erie. Between Lake Superior and its waters, and Huron, are the rapids of St. Marie, which will permit boats to pass, but not larger vessels. Lakes Huron and Michigan afford communication with Lake Erie by vessels of eight feet draught. That part of the trade which comes from the waters of the Mississippi, must pass from the mouth through some portage into the waters of the lakes. The portage from the Illinois river into a water of Michigan, is of one mile only. From the Wabash, Miami, Muskingum, or Allegany, are portages into the waters of Lake Erie, of from one to fifteen miles. When the commodities are brought into and have passed through Lake Erie, there is between that and Ontario an interruption by the falls of Niagara, where the portage is of eight miles; and between Ontario and the Hudson's river are portages of the falls of Onondago, a little above Oswego, of a quarter of a mile; from Wood creek to the Mohawks river, two miles; at the little falls of the Mohawks river, half a mile, and from Schenectady to Albany, sixteen miles. Besides the increase of expence occasioned by frequent change of carriage, there is an increased risk of pillage produced by committing
merchandize

merchandize to a greater number of hands successively. The Patomak offers itself under the following circumstances. For the trade of the lakes and their waters westward of Lake Erie, when it shall have entered that lake, must coast along its southern shore, on account of the number and excellence of its harbours; the northern, though shortest, having few harbours, and these unsafe. Having reached Cayahoga, to proceed on to New York, it will have eight hundred and twenty-five miles and five portages; whereas it is but four hundred and twenty-five miles to Alexandria, its emporium on the Patomak, if it turns into the Cayahoga, and passes through that, Big-beaver, Ohio, Yohogany, (or Monongalia and Cheat) and Patomak, and there are but two portages; the first of which, between Cayahoga and Beaver, may be removed by uniting the sources of these waters, which are lakes in the neighbourhood of each other, and in a champaign country; the other, from the waters of Ohio to Patomak, will be from fifteen to forty miles, according to the trouble which shall be taken to approach the two navigations. For the trade of the Ohio, or that which shall come into it from its own waters or the Mississippi, it is nearer through the Patomak to Alexandria than New-York, by five hundred and eighty miles, and is interrupted by one portage only. There is another circumstance of difference too. The lakes themselves never freeze, but the communications between them freeze, and the Hudson's river is itself shut up by the ice three months in the year; whereas the channel to the Chesapeake leads directly into a warmer climate. The southern parts of it very rarely freeze at all, and whenever the northern do, it is so near the sources of the rivers, that the frequent floods, to which they are there liable, break up the ice immediately, so that vessels may pass through the whole winter, subject only to accidental and short delays. Add to all this, that in case of a war with our neighbours of Canada, or the Indians, the rout to New York becomes a frontier through almost its whole length, and all commerce through it ceases from that moment.—But the channel to New York is already known to practice; whereas, the upper waters of the Ohio and the Patomak, and the great falls of the latter, are yet to be cleared of their fixed obstructions.

The rout by St. Lawrence is well known to be attended with many advantages, and with some disadvantages. But there is a fifth rout, which the enlightened and enterprising Pennsylvanians contemplate, which, if effected, will be the easiest, cheapest, and surest passage from the lakes, and Ohio river, by means of the Susquehanna, and a canal from thence to Philadelphia. The latter part of this plan, viz. the canal between Susquehanna and the Schuylkill rivers is now actually in execution. Should they accomplish their whole scheme, and they appear confident of success, Philadelphia in all probability will become, in some future period, the largest city that has ever yet existed.

Particular descriptions of the other rivers in the United States are reserved to be given in the geographical account of those states through which they respectively flow. One general observation respecting the rivers will, however, be naturally introduced here, and that is, that the entrance into almost all the rivers, inlets, and bays, from New Hampshire to Georgia, are from south-east to north-west.

BAYS.] The coast of the United States is indented with numerous bays, some of which are equal in size to any in the known world.—Beginning at the north-easterly part of the continent; and proceeding south-westerly, you first find the bay or gulf of St. Lawrence, which receives the waters of the river of the same name. Next are Chedabukto and Chebukto Bays, in Nova Scotia, the latter distinguished by the loss of a French fleet in a former war between France and Great Britain. The Bay of Fundy,

Fundy, between Nova Scotia and New Brunswick, is remarkable for its tides, which rise to the height of fifty or sixty feet, and flow so rapidly as to overtake animals which feed upon the shore. Passamaquoddy, Penobscot, Broad and Cateo Bays, lie along the coast of the district of Maine. Massachusetts Bay spreads eastward of Boston, and is comprehended between Cape Ann on the north, and Cape Cod on the south. The points of Boston Harbour are Nahant and Alderton Points. Passing by Narraganset and other bays in the state of Rhode Island, you enter Long Island Sound, between Montauk Point and the Main. This Sound, as it is called, is a kind of inland sea, from three to twenty-five miles broad, and about one hundred and forty miles long, extending the whole length of the island, and dividing it from Connecticut. It communicates with the ocean at both ends of Long Island, and affords a very safe and convenient inland navigation.

The celebrated strait, called Hell-Gate, is near the west end of this sound, about eight miles eastward of New York city, and is remarkable for its whirlpools, which make a tremendous roaring at certain times of tide. These whirlpools are occasioned by the narrowness and crookedness of the pass, and a bed of rocks which extend quite across it; and not by the meeting of the tides from east to west, as has been conjectured, because they meet at Frogs' Point, several miles above. A skilful pilot may with safety conduct a ship of any burden through this strait with the tide, or, at still water, with a fair wind*.

Delaware Bay is sixty miles long, from the cape to the entrance of the river Delaware at Bombay Hook; and so wide in some parts, as that a ship, in the middle of it, cannot be seen from the land. It opens into the Atlantic north-west and south-east, between Cape Henlopen on the right, and Cape May on the left. These capes are eighteen or twenty miles apart.

* The following ingenious geological remarks of Dr. Mitchell's, on certain maritime parts of the state of New York, deserve a place in this connection:

"From the survey of the fossils in these parts of the American coast one becomes convinced, that the principal share of them is *GRANITICAL*, composed of the same sorts of materials with the highest Alps, Pyrenees, Caucasus, and Andes, and like them destitute of metals and petrifications.

The occurrence of no horizontal strata, and the frequency of vertical layers, lead us further to suppose that these are not secondary collections of minerals, but are certainly in a state of primeval arrangement.

The *Silicates*, *Amianthus*, *Shoerl*, *Feldspath*, *Mica*, *Garnet*, *Jaspar*, *Shiflus*, *Asbestos*, and *Quartz*, must all be considered as *primitive fossils*, and by no means of an alluvial nature.

What inference remains now to be drawn from this statement of facts, but that the fashionable opinion of considering these maritime parts of our country as flats, hove up from the deeps by the sea, or brought down from the heights by the rivers, stands unsupported by reason, and contradicted by experience?

A more probable opinion is, that Long Island, and the adjacent continent, were in former days continuous, or only separated by a small river, and that the strait which now divides them, was formed by successive inroads of the sea from the eastward and westward in the course of ages. This conjecture is supported by the facts which follow, *to wit*: 1. The fossil bodies on both shores have a near resemblance. 2. The rocks and islands lying between are formed of similar materials. 3. In several places, particularly at White-Stone and Hell-Gate, the distance from land to land is very small. 4. Wherever the shore is not composed of solid rock, there the water continues to make great encroachments, and to cause the high banks to tumble down, as is true, not only here, but at Moncton, Newton, and elsewhere, at this very day. 5. The rocky piles in the Sound, called Executions, and Stepping-Stones, and those named Hurtleberry Island, Pea Island, Heart Island, and many more that lie up and down, are strong circumstances in favour of this opinion; for from several of them all the earthy matter, as far as the highest tides can reach, has long since been carried away, and from the rest, the sand and gravel continue to be removed by daily attrition; as is true also of the Brothers, Ryker's, Blackwell's, and other islands. 6. There is a tradition among that race of men, who, previous to the Europeans, possessed this tract of country, that at some distant period, in former times, their ancestors could step from rock to rock, and cross this arm of the sea on foot at Hell-Gate."

The Chesapeake is one of the largest bays in the known world. Its entrance is nearly E. N. E. and S. S. W. between Cape Charles, lat. $37^{\circ} 12'$, and Cape Henry, lat. 37° , in Virginia, twelve miles wide, and it extends two hundred and seventy miles to the northward, dividing Virginia and Maryland. It is from seven to eighteen miles broad, and generally as much as nine fathoms deep; affording many commodious harbours, and a safe and easy navigation. It receives the waters of the Susquehanna, Patomak, Rappahannock, York and James rivers, which are all large and navigable.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The tract of country belonging to the United States is happily variegated with plains and mountains, hills and vallies. Some parts are rocky, particularly New England, the north parts of New York, and New Jersey, and a broad space, including the several ridges of the long range of mountains which run south-westward through Pennsylvania, Virginia, North Carolina, and part of Georgia, dividing the waters which flow into the Atlantic from those which fall into the Mississippi. In the parts east of the Alleghany mountains, in the southern states, the country for several hundred miles in length, and sixty or seventy, and sometimes more, in breadth, is level and entirely free from stone. It has been a question agitated by the curious, whether the extensive tract of low flat country, which fronts the several states south of New York, and extends back to the hills, has remained in its present form and situation ever since the flood: or whether it has been made by the particles of earth which have been washed down from the adjacent mountains, and by the accumulation of soil from the decay of vegetable substances; or by earth washed out of the bay of Mexico by the Gulf Stream, and lodged on the coast; or by the recesses of the ocean, occasioned by a change in some other parts of the earth. Several phenomena deserve consideration in forming an opinion on this question.

1. It is a fact, well known to every person of observation who has lived in, or travelled through, the southern states, that marine shells and other substances which are peculiar to the sea shore, are almost invariably found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth. A gentleman of veracity told me, that in sinking a well many miles from the sea, he found, at the depth of twenty feet, every appearance of a salt marsh, that is, marsh grass, marsh mud, and brackish water. In all this flat country, until you come to the hilly land, wherever you dig a well, you find the water, at a certain depth, fresh and tolerable good; but if you exceed that depth two or three feet, you come to a saltish or brackish water that is scarcely drinkable, and the earth dug up resembles, in appearance and smell, that which is dug up on the edges of the salt marshes.

2. On and near the margin of the rivers are frequently found sand hills, which appear to have been drifted into ridges by the force of water. At the bottom of some of the banks in the rivers, fifteen or twenty feet below the surface of the earth, are washed out from the solid ground, logs, branches, and leaves of trees; and the whole bank, from bottom to top, appears streaked with layers of logs, leaves, and sand. These appearances are seen far up the rivers, from eighty to an hundred miles from the sea, where, when the rivers are low, the banks are from fifteen to twenty feet high. As you proceed down the rivers towards the sea, the banks decrease in height, but still are formed of layers of sand, leaves, and logs, some of which are entirely found, and appear to have been suddenly covered to a considerable depth.

3. It has been observed, that the rivers in the southern states frequently vary their channels; that the swamps and low grounds are constantly filling up, and that the land, in many places, annually infringes upon the ocean. It is an authenticated fact, that

that no longer ago than 1771, at Cape Lookout, on the coast of North Carolina, in about latitude $34^{\circ} 50'$, there was an excellent harbour, capacious enough to receive an hundred sail of shipping at a time, in a good depth of water: it is now entirely filled up, and is solid ground. Instances of this kind are frequent along the coast.

It is observable, likewise, that there is a gradual descent of about eight hundred feet, by measurement, from the foot of the mountains to the sea board. This descent continues, as is demonstrated by soundings, far into the sea.

4. It is worthy of observation, that the soil on the banks of the rivers is proportionably coarse or fine according to its distance from the mountains. When you first leave the mountains, and for a considerable distance, it is observable, that the soil is coarse, with a large mixture of sand and shining heavy particles. As you proceed toward the sea, the soil is less coarse, and so on; in proportion as you advance, the soil is finer and finer, until, finally, is deposited a soil so fine, that it consolidates into perfect clay; but a clay of a peculiar quality, for a great part of it has intermixed with it reddish streaks and veins, like a species of *ochre*, brought probably from the *red-lands* which lie up towards the mountains. This clay, when dug up and exposed to the weather, will dissolve into a fine mould, without the least mixture of sand or any gritty substance, whatever. Now we know that running waters, when turbid, will deposit, first, the coarsest and heaviest particles, mediately, those of the several intermediate degrees of fineness, and ultimately, those which are the most light and subtle; and such in fact is the general quality of the soil on the banks of the southern rivers.

5. It is a well-known fact, that on the banks of Savannah river, about ninety miles from the sea in a direct line, and one hundred and fifty or two hundred, as the river runs, there is a very remarkable collection of oyster shells of an uncommon size. They run in a north-east and south-west direction, nearly parallel to the sea coast, in three distinct ridges, which together occupy a space of seven miles in breadth. The ridges commence at Savannah river, and have been traced as far south as the northern branches of the Altamaha river. They are found in such quantities, as that the indigo planters carry them away in large boat loads, for the purpose of making lime water, to be used in the manufacture of indigo. There are thousands and thousands of tons still remaining.* The question is, how came they here? It cannot be supposed that they were carried by land. Neither is it probable that they were conveyed in canoes, or boats, to such a distance from the place where oysters are now found. The uncivilized natives, agreeably to their roving manner of living, would rather have removed to the sea shore, than have been at such immense labour in procuring oysters. Besides, the difficulties of conveying them would have been insurmountable. They

* "On the Georgia side of the river, about 15 miles below Silver Bluff, the high road crosses a ridge of high-swelling hills of uncommon elevation, and perhaps 70 feet higher than the surface of the river. These hills are from three feet below the common vegetative surface, to the depth of 20 or 30 feet, composed entirely of fossil oyster shells, internally of the colour and consistency of clear white marble: they are of an incredible magnitude, generally 15 or 20 inches in length; from 6 to 8 wide, and from 2 to 4 in thickness, and their hollows sufficient to receive an ordinary man's foot. They appear all to have been opened before the period of petrification; a transmutation they seem evidently to have suffered. They are undoubtedly very ancient, or perhaps antediluvian. The adjacent inhabitants burn them to lime for building, for which purpose they serve very well; and would undoubtedly afford an excellent manure, when their lands require it, these hills now being remarkably fertile. The heaps of shells lie upon a *stratum* of yellowish sand mould, of several feet in depth, upon a foundation of soft white rocks, that has the outward appearance of free-stone, but on strict examination is really a testaceous concrete, or composition of sand and pulverised sea shells. In short, this testaceous rock approaches near in quality and appearance to the Bahama or Bermudian White Rock." *Bartram's Travels*, p. 318.

would not only have had a strong current in the river against them, an obstacle which would not have been easily overcome by the Indians, who have ever had a great aversion to labour; but could they have surmounted this difficulty, oysters conveyed such a distance, either by land or water, in so warm a climate, would have spoiled on the passage, and have become useless. The circumstance of these shells being found in such quantities, at so great a distance from the sea, can be rationally accounted for in no other way, than by supposing that the sea shore was formerly near this bed of shells, and that the ocean has since, by the operation of certain causes not yet fully investigated, receded. These phenomena, it is presumed, will authorize this conclusion, that a great part of the flat country which spreads easterly of the Allegany mountains, had, in some past period, a superincumbent sea; or rather, that the constant accretion of soil from the various causes before hinted at, has forced it to retire.

MOUNTAINS.] The tract of country east of Hudson's river, comprehending part of the State of New York, the four New England States, and Vermont, is rough, hilly, and in some parts mountainous. These mountains will be more particularly described under New England. In all parts of the world, and particularly on this western continent, it is observable, that as you depart from the ocean, or from a river, the land gradually rises; and the height of land, in common, is about equally distant from the water on either side. The Andes, in South America, form the height of land between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans. The high lands between the district of Maine and the province of Lower Canada, divide the rivers which fall into the St. Lawrence, north, and into the Atlantic, south. The Green Mountains, in Vermont, divide the waters which flow easterly into Connecticut river from those which fall westerly into Lake Champlain, Lake George, and Hudson's River.

Between the Atlantic, the Mississippi, and the lakes, runs a long range of mountains, made up of a great number of ridges. These mountains extend north-easterly and south-westerly, nearly parallel to the sea coast, about nine hundred miles in length, and from sixty to one hundred and fifty and two hundred miles in breadth. Mr. Evans observes, with respect to that part of these mountains which he travelled over, viz. in the back part of Pennsylvania, that scarcely one acre in ten is capable of culture. This, however, is not the case in all parts of this range. Numerous tracts of fine arable and grazing land intervene between the ridges. The different ridges which compose this immense range of mountains, have different names in different states.

As you advance from the Atlantic, the first ridge in Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina, is the Blue Ridge, or South Mountain, which is from one hundred and thirty to two hundred miles from the sea. Between this and the North Mountain spreads a large fertile vale; next lies the Allegany ridge; next beyond this is the Long Ridge, called the Laurel Mountains, in a spur of which, about latitude 36° , is a spring of water fifty feet deep, very cold, and it is said, as blue as indigo. From these several ridges proceed innumerable nameless branches or spurs. The Kittatinny mountains run through the northern parts of New Jersey and Pennsylvania. All these ridges, except the Allegany, are separated by rivers, which appear to have forced their passages through solid rocks.

The principal ridge is the Allegany, which has been descriptively called the *back-bone* of the United States. The general name for these mountains, taken collectively, seems not yet to have been determined. Mr. Evans calls them the *Endless Mountains*: others have called them the Appalachian Mountains, from a tribe of Indians who live

of a river which proceeds from this mountain, called the Appalachicola. But the most common name is the Alleghany Mountains, so called, either from the principal ridge of the range, or from their running nearly parallel to the Alleghany or Ohio river; which, from its head waters, till it empties into the Mississippi, is known and called by the name of Alleghany River, by the Seneca and other tribes of the Six Nations, who once inhabited it. These mountains are not confusedly scattered and broken, rising here and there into high peaks, overtopping each other, but stretch along in uniform ridges, scarcely half a mile high. They spread as you proceed south, and some of them terminate in high perpendicular bluffs. Others gradually subside into a level country, giving rise to the rivers which run southerly into the Gulf of Mexico.

They afford many curious phenomena, from which naturalists have deduced many theories of the earth. Some of them have been whimsical enough; Mr. Evans supposes that the most obvious of the theories which have been formed of the earth is, that it was originally made out of the ruins of another. "Bones and shells which escaped the fate of softer animal substances, we find mixed with the old materials, and elegantly preserved in the loose stones and rocky bases of the highest of these hills." With deference, however, to Mr. Evans's opinion, these appearances have been much more rationally accounted for by supposing the reality of the flood, of which Moses has given us an account. Mr. Evans thinks this too great a miracle to obtain belief. But whether is it a greater miracle for the Creator to alter a globe of earth by a deluge, when made, or to create one new from the ruins of another? The former certainly is not less credible than the latter. "These mountains," say our author, "existed in their present elevated height before the deluge, but not so bare of soil as now." How Mr. Evans came to be so circumstantially acquainted with these pretended facts, is difficult to determine, unless we suppose him to have been an Antediluvian, and to have surveyed them accurately before the convulsions of the deluge; and until we can be fully assured of this, we must be excused in not assenting to his opinion, and in adhering to the old philosophy of Moses and his advocates. We have every reason to believe that the primitive state of the earth was totally metamorphosed by the first convulsion of nature at the time of the deluge; that *the fountains of the great deep were indeed broken up*, and that the various *strata* of the earth were disordered, and thrown into every possible degree of confusion and disorder. Hence those vast piles of mountains which lift their craggy cliffs to the clouds, were probably thrown together from the floating ruins of the earth: and this conjecture is remarkably confirmed by the vast number of fossils and other marine *exuviae* which are found imbedded on the tops of mountains, in the interior parts of continents remote from the sea, in all parts of the world hitherto explored. The various circumstances attending these marine bodies leave us to conclude, that they were actually generated, lived, and died in the very beds wherein they were found, and therefore these beds must have originally been at the bottom of the ocean, though now in many instances elevated several miles above its surface. Hence it appears that mountains and continents were not primary productions of nature, but of a very distant period of time from the creation of the world; a time long enough for the *strata* to have acquired their greatest degree of cohesion and hardness; and for the testaceous matter of marine shells to become changed to a stony substance; for in the fissures of the lime-stone and other strata, fragments of the same shell have been frequently found adhering to each side of the cleft, in the very state in which they were originally broken; so that if the several parts were brought together, they would apparently tally with each other exactly.

exactly. A very considerable time therefore must have elapsed between the chaotic state of the earth and the deluge, which agrees with the account of Moses, who makes it a little upwards of sixteen hundred years. These observations are intended to shew, in one instance out of many others, the agreement between revelation and reason, between the account which Moses gives us of the creation and deluge, and the present appearances of nature. Those who wish to have this agreement more fully and satisfactorily stated, are referred to a very learned and ingenious "*Inquiry into the original state and formation of the earth*," by John Whitehurst, F. R. S. to whom I acknowledge myself indebted for some of the foregoing observations.

SOIL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] In the United States are to be found every species of soil that the earth affords. In one part of them or another, they produce all the various kinds of fruits, grain, pulse, and hortulane plants and roots, which are found in Europe, and have been thence transplanted to America. Besides these, a great variety of native vegetable productions.

The natural history of the American States, particularly of New England, is yet in its infancy. Several ingenious foreigners, skilled in botany, have visited the southern, and some of the middle states, and Canada, and these states have also had ingenious botanists of their own, who have made considerable progress in describing the productions of those parts of America which they have visited; but New England seems not to have engaged the attention either of foreign or American botanists. There was never an attempt to describe botanically, the vegetable productions of the eastern states, till the Rev. Dr. Cutler, of Ipswich, turned his attention to the subject. The result of his first inquiries was published in the first volume of the "*Memoirs of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences*." Since that period, the Doctor has paid very particular attention to this his favourite study; and the public may shortly expect to be gratified and improved by his botanical descriptions and discoveries.* To his liberal and generous communications, I am principally indebted for the following account of the vegetable productions of the eastern and middle states.

N. B. The following catalogues are all incomplete, and designed only to give general ideas. They contain, however, more correct information concerning the Natural History of New England, than has yet been published.

GRAIN CULTIVATED IN THE EASTERN AND MIDDLE STATES.] Indian corn (*Zea mays*) a native grain of North America. The varieties of this grain, occasioned by a difference in soil, cultivation, and climate, are almost endless.† Winter and summer rye (*secale cereale*, *hybernum* et *vernum*,) the only species cultivated by our farmers. The winter rye succeeds best in ground newly cleared, but summer rye is

* The productions of the southern states and of Canada have not been well described by any one author, in a work professedly for that purpose; but are mostly intermixed with the productions of other parts of the world, in the large works of European botanists. This renders it difficult to select them, and to give an accurate connected account of them. To remedy this inconvenience, and to rescue this country from the reproach of not having any authentic and scientific account of its natural history, Dr. Cutler, who has already examined nearly all the vegetables of New England, intends, as soon as his leisure will admit, to publish a botanical work, of considerable magnitude, confined principally to the productions of the New England States. Dr. Barton, of Philadelphia, I am informed, is collecting materials for a work of a similar nature, to comprehend the middle and southern states: so that both together will form a complete Natural History of the American States.

† Of all the different kinds of Indian corn, botanists have been able to find but one *species*. The difference in this *genus* of plants is probably accidental, owing to the above-mentioned causes. It is possible, however, that among these *varieties*, *specific* characters may yet be found. What is called the *spiked Indian corn*, is probably only a *variety*. The plant commonly known in the southern states by the name of *Guinea corn*, is of the family of grasses, as are rye, wheat, barley, oats, &c.

frequently sown in old towns, where the land has been long under cultivation. The winter and summer rye are the same species, forming two varieties; but the winter and summer wheat are two distinct species. Several species of barley are cultivated, the most common is the six ranked (*Hordeum hexastichon*), and the two ranked (*Hordeum distichon*.) The wheat principally cultivated are the winter and summer (*Triticum hybernum et æstivum*.)—Oats (*Avena sativa*.)—Buck-wheat (*Polygonum fagopirum*.)

In the southern States, as far north as Virginia, where the lands are suitable, besides the grain already mentioned, they cultivate rice.—This grain was brought into Carolina first by Sir Nathaniel Johnson, in 1688; and afterwards more and of a different kind, probably a variety, was imported by a ship from Madagascar, in 1696; till which time it was not much cultivated. It succeeds well also on the Ohio river, where it is planted both on the high and low grounds, and in the same fields with Indian corn and other grain. A gentleman who had planted it several years in his garden, informed Dr. Cutler that it yielded at the rate of 80 bushels an acre. At Marietta, it has answered the most sanguine expectations of the inhabitants, producing equal to any other grain, without being at any time overflowed with water. The Doctor himself saw it growing in a very flourishing state, on high land, but it had not, at the season he saw it, began to bloom. It was said not to be of the same species of Carolina rice. It is probably the wild rice, which I have been informed grows in plenty, in some of the interior parts of North America, and is the most valuable of all the spontaneous productions of the country. In Pennsylvania grows a sort of grain called, by the Germans, *Spelts*, which resembles wheat; and is a very valuable grain.

CULTIVATED GRASSES IN THE EASTERN AND MIDDLE STATES.] All the grasses, cultivated in the middle and New England States, are found growing indigenous. It is not improbable, however, that some of them may be naturalized exotics. The following are the principal grasses sown in our cultivated ground, or in any way propagated for feed and hay:

Herd's Grass or Fox Tail, (*Alopecurus pratensis*), this is reckoned the best grass we have, is a native, and supposed to be peculiar to this country. Blue Grass (*Alopecurus geniculatus*.)—Many species of Bent (*Agrostis*), particularly the Rhode Island Bent (*Agrostis interrupta*.) The small and great English grass (*Poa trivialis et pratensis*.)—Wire grass (*Poa compressa*.)—Fowl Meadow grass (*Poa aviaria*, *spiculis subbifloris*.)* Red and white clover (*Trifolium pratense et repens*.)

The grasses of Virginia, according to Mr. Jefferson, are Lucerne, St. Foin, Burnet, Timothy, Ray, and Orchard grass, red, white, and yellow clover; Green sword, Blue grass and Crab grass. South of Virginia very little attention is paid to the cultivation of grasses. The winters are so mild, that the cattle find a tolerable supply of food in the woods.

NATIVE GRASSES IN NEW ENGLAND.] Besides the cultivated grasses, the States of New England abound with a great variety which are found growing in their native soils and situations, many of which have not been described by any botanical writers. The small experiments which have been made, sufficiently evince that several of them make excellent hay. They might be greatly improved by cultivation, and are highly worthy the attention of our farmers. Those which are found most common are the following, viz.

* "The Fowl meadows, on Neponset river, between Dedham and Stoughton, are considered by some a curiosity. A large tract of land is there cleared and sowed with an excellent kind of grass, without the assistance of man."

Dr. Fisher.

The vernal grass (*Anthoxanthum odoratum*).—Timothy, or bulbus Cat's tail grass (*Phleum pratense*).—Several species of Panic grass (*Panicum*).—Several species of Bent (*Agrostis*).—Hair grass (*Aira aquatica*).—Numerous species of *Poa*.—Quaking grass, (*Briza*) several species—Cock's foot grass (*Dactylis glomerata*).—Millet (*Milium effusum*).—Fescue grass (*Festuca*) many species—Oat grass (*Avena spicata*).—Reed grass (*Arundo*) several species—Brome grass (*Bromus squarrosus*).—Lime grass (*Elymus hyemalis*).—Barley grass (*Hordeum pratense*).—Dog's or couch grass (*Triticum repens*).—Many species of rush grass (*Juncus*).—Numerous species of *Carex*, in fresh and salt, marshy ground. Several species of Beard grass (*Andropogon*).—Soft grass, (*Holcus lanatus et odoratus*).—Besides these, there are many valuable grasses which, at present, are non-descripts.

WILD FRUITS IN NEW ENGLAND.] Black Currant (*Ribes nigrum*).—Gooseberry (*Ribes gloffularia*).—Prickly Gooseberry (*Ribes cynosbati*).—Two species of Grapes—the Black Grape (*Vitis labrusca*), and Fox Grape (*Vitis vulpina*). Of these two species we have many varieties, differing only in size, colour, and taste. An excellent wine, and in large quantities, has lately been made by the French people, at their new settlement on the Ohio river, from the native grapes, without any kind of cultivation. They collected the grapes promiscuously from all the varieties growing in that country. By separating them, wines of different, and no doubt some of them, of a much better quality, might have been made. The native grape is propagated with great ease; its growth is luxuriant, overspreading the highest trees in the forests, and by proper attention would afford an ample supply of wines, in the northern as well as southern States. The principal difficulty seems to be the want of a proper knowledge of the process in making wine, and preparing it for use.—Barberry bush (*Berberis vulgaris*).—Whortleberry (*Vaccinium ligustrinum*).—Blueberry (*Vaccinium corymbosum*).—White Whortleberry (*Vaccinium album*).—Indian Gooseberry (*Vaccinium frondosum*).—Long-leaved Whortleberry (*Vaccinium stamineum*).—Craneberry (*Vaccinium oxycoccus*).—Yellow Plum (*Prunus americana*).—Beach Plum (*Prunus maritima*).—Large black Cherry (*Prunus nigra*).—Purple Cherry (*Prunus virginiana*).—Wild red Cherry (*Prunus rubra*).—Dwarf or Choak Cherry (*Prunus canadensis*).—Mountain Cherry (*Prunus montana*).—Service-tree (*Mespilus canadensis*).—Brambleberry (*Rubus occidentalis*).—Sawtooth Blackberry or Bumblekites (*Rubus fruticosus*).—Briar Blackberry (*Rubus moluccanus*).—Dewberry (*Rubus hispidus*).—Common Raspberry (*Rubus idæus*).—Smooth-stalked Raspberry (*Rubus canadensis*).—Superb Raspberry (*Rubus odoratus*).—Strawberry (*Fragaria vesca*). The native strawberry is much improved by cultivation, and produces a larger and better-flavoured fruit, than the exotic.—Mulberry (*Morus nigra*).

For information on this article, respecting the Southern States, the reader may consult what Catesby, Clayton, Jefferson, and Bartram have written upon it.

NUT FRUIT.] White Oak (*Quercus alba*).—Red Oak (*Quercus rubra*) and several other species with smaller fruit.—Black Walnut (*Juglans nigra*).—White Walnut, Bitternut, or Oilnut (*Juglans cathartica*).—White, or round nut Hickory (*Juglans alba*).—Shag-bark Hickory (*Juglans cinerea*).—*—Chefnut (*Fagus castanea*).—Chinquipin, or dwarf Chefnut (*Fagus pumila*).—Beech nut (*Fagus sylvatica*).—Hazlenut (*Corylus avellana*).—Filbert (*Corylus cornuta*).

We may here mention the Paccan or Illinois nut (*Juglans alba, foliis lanceolatis, acuminatis, serratis, tomentosis, fructu minore, ovato, compresso, vix insculpto, dulci,*

* The same, probably, as Clayton's Scaly bark hickory of Virginia, (*Juglans alba, cortice squamoso*.)

putamine, tenerrimo. Jefferson.) This nut is about the size of a large, long acorn, and of an oval form, the shell is easily cracked, and the kernel shaped like that of a walnut. The trees which bear this fruit grow, naturally, on the Mississippi and its branches, south of forty degrees north latitude. They grow well when planted in the southern Atlantic States.

MEDICINAL PLANTS IN NEW ENGLAND.] Among the native and uncultivated plants of New England, the following have been employed for medicinal purposes. Water Horehound (*Lycopus virginica*)—Blue Flag (*Iris virginica*)—Skunk Cabbage (*Arum Americanum*. Catesb. and *Dracontium foetidum*. Linn.)—Partridge-berry (*Mitchella repens*)—Great, and Marsh Plantain (*Plantago major et maritima*)—Witch Hazel (*Hamamelis virginica*)—Hounds tongue (*Cynoglossum officinale*)—Comfrey (*Symphytum officin.*)—Bear's ear Sanicle (*Cortusa gmelini*)—Appleperu (*Datura stramonium*)—Bittersweet (*Solanum dulcamara*)—Tivertwig, or American Mazerion (*Celastrus scandens*)—Elm* (*Ulmus americana*)—Great Laserwort, and Wild Angelica (*Laserpitium trilobum, et latifolium*)—Angelica, or American Masterwort (*Angelica lucida*)—Water Elder (*Viburnum opulus*)—Elder (*Sambucus nigra*)—Chickweed (*Alisma media*)—Pettimorrel, or Life of man (*Aralia racemosa*)—Sarsaparilla (*Aralia nudicaulis*?)—Marsh Rosemary (*Statice limonium*)—Sundew (*Drosera rotundifolia*)—Solomon's Seal (*Convallaria stellata*?)—Adder's Tongue (*Convallaria bifolia*)—Unicorn (*Aletis farinosa*)—Sweet Flag (*Acorus calamus*)—Several species of Dock (*Rumex*)—Bistort (*Polygonum bistorta*)—Spice wood, or Feverbush (*Laurus benzoin*)—Sassafras (*Laurus sassafras*)—Consumption Root (*Pyrola rotundifolia*)—Rheum Weed (*Pyrola minor*)—Mouse Ear (*Cerastium viscosum*)—Gargit, or Skoke (*Plantago lanceolata*)—Wild Hyssop (*Lythrum hyssopis*)—Agrimony (*Agrimonia eupatoria*)—Common Avens, or Herb Bennet (*Geum Virg.*)—Water Avens, or Throatwort (*Geum rivale*)—Blood Root, or Puccoon (*Sanguinaria canadensis*)—Celandine (*Chelidonium majus*)—Yellow Water Lily (*Nymphaea lutea*)—Pond Lily (*Nymphaea alba*)—Golden Thread, or Mouth Root (*Nigella*?)—Liverwort (*Anemone hepatica*)—Crowsfoot (*Ranunculus Pennsylv.*)—Germander (*Teucrium Virg.*)—Catmint, or Catnip (*Nepeta cataria*)—Head Betony (*Betonica officinalis*)—Horsemint, Spearmint, Watermint, and Pennroyal (*Mentha spicata, viridis, aquatica, et pulegium*)—Ground Ivy, or Gill go over the ground (*Glechoma hederacea*)—Hedge Nettle (*Stachys sylvatica*)—Horehound (*Marrubium vulgare*)—Motherwort (*Leonurus cardiaca*)—Wild Marjoram (*Origanum vulgare*)—Wild Lavender (*Trichostema*?)—Wood Betony (*Pidicularis canadensis*)—Shepherd's Purse or Pouch (*Thlaspi bursa pastoris*)—Water Cresses (*Sisymbrium nasturtium*)—Cranesbill (*Geranium macrorrhizum*)—Marsh Mal low (*Althæa officin.*)—Mallow (*Malva rotundifolia*)—Succory (*Crepis barbata*)—Burdock (*Actium lappa*)—Devil's Bit (*Serratula amara*) The root resembles the European Devil's Bit (*Scabiosa succisa*) from which circumstance the English name has probably been applied to this plant.—Tansey (*Tanacetum vulgare*)—Wormwood (*Artemisia absinthiani*)—Life everlasting (*Gnaphalium odoratissimum*?)—Colts Foot (*Tussilago farfara*)—Golden-rod (*Solidago canad.*)—Elecampane (*Inula helenium*)—Mayweed (*Anthemis cotula*)—Yarrow (*Achillea millefolia*)—American Pride, (*Lobelia cardinalis*) Three other species of Lobelia (*Lobelia dortmanna, kalmii, et siphilitica*)—Dragon Root (*Arum Virg.*)—Stinging Nettle (*Urtica urens*)—White Walnut, Butter Nut, or Oilnut (*Juglans cathartica*)—Swamp Willow (*Salix cinerea*?)—Sweet Gale (*Myrica gale*)—White Hellebore, or Pokeroor (*Veratrum album*)—Moonwort (*Of-*

* The bark of the sweet Elm, is a most excellent mucilage.

munda lunaria)—Female Fern (*Pteris caudata*)—Hearts Tongue (*Asplenium scolopendrium*)—Spleenwort (*Asplenium falicifolium*)—Black Maidenhair (*Asplenium adiantum*.) To the above we may add, Arimart (*Polygonum Sagitatum*. Linn.)

Among a great variety of other medicinal plants in the southern and middle States are Pink Root () an excellent vermifuge—Senna (*Cassia lignstrina*)—Clivers or Goose-grafs (*Galium spuium*)—Palma Christi (*Ricinus*) from which the Castor oil is expressed—Several species of Mallow—Indian Physic (*Spiræa trifoliata*)—Euphorbial Ipecacuanhæ—Pleurisy Root (*Asclepias decumbens*)—Virginia Snake Root (*Aristolochia serpentaria*)—Black Snake Root (*Aëtea racemosa*)—Seneca Rattle-snake Root (*Polygala Senega*)—Valerian (*Valeriana locusta radiata*)—Ginseng (*Panax quinquefolium*)—Angelica (*Angelica sylvestris*)—Cassava (*Jatropha urens*.)

FLOWERING TREES AND SHRUBS IN THE UNITED STATES.] Globe Flower (*Cephalanthus occidentalis*)—Pigeonberry (*Cissus ficoides*)—Virginian Dogwood (*Cornus florida*)—Cornel (*Cornus canadensis*)—Red-flowered Honeyfuckle (*Azalea nudiflora*)—White American Honeyfuckle (*Azalea viscosa*)—American Tea (*Ceanothus americanus*)—Cherry Honeyfuckle (*Lonicera diervilla*)—Virginia scarlet Honeyfuckle (*Lonicera virginiana*)—Dwarf Cherry Honeyfuckle (*Lonicera canadensis*)—Evergreen Spindle Tree (*Euonymus sempervirens*)—Virginian Itca (*Itea virginica*) Stag's-horn Sumach (*Rhus typhinum*)—Black Haw (*Viburnum prunifolium*)—Blackberried Elder (*Sambucus nigra*)—Redberried Elder (*Sambucus canadensis*)—Scarlet-flowered Horse Chestnut (*Æsculus pavia*)—Judas Tree (*Cercis canadensis*)—Great Laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)—Dwarf Laurel (*Kalmia angustifolia*)—Thyme-leaved Marsh Cistus (*Ledum Thymifolium*)—American Senna (*Rhodora canadensis*)—Rose Bay Tree (*Rhododendrum maximum*)—White Pepper Bush (*Andromeda arborea*)—Red-bud Andromeda (*Andromeda racemosa*)—Bog Evergreen (*Andromeda calyculata*)—Carolina Red-bud (*Andromeda nitida*)—Carolina Iron-wood Tree (*Andromeda plumata*)—Carolinian Syrianga (*Philadelphus inodorus*)—Sorbus Tree (*Sorbus aucuparia*)—Mountain Ash (*Sorbus americana*)—Service Tree (*Mespilus canadensis*)—Medlar Tree (*Mespilus nivea*)—Sweet-scented Crab Apple-tree (*Pyrus coronaria*)—Meadow Sweet (*Spiræa falicifolia*)—Queen of the Meadows (*Spiræa tomentosa*)—Canadian Spiræa (*Spiræa hypericifolia*)—Wild Rose (*Rosa carolina*)—Pennsylvanian Swamp Rose (*Rosa palustris*)—Superb Raspberry (*Rubus odoratus*)—Carolin Fothergilla (*Fothergilla gardeni*)—Tulip Tree (*Liriodendrum tulipifera*)—Evergreen Tulip Tree (*Magnolia grandiflora*)—Climbing Trumpet Flower (*Bignonia radicans*)—Virginian Stewartia (*Stewartia malacodendron*)—Franklin Tree (*Franklinia alatamaha*)—Locust Tree (*Robinia pseud acacia*)—Roseflowered Locust Tree (*Robinia rosea*)—Swamp Willow (*Salix cineria* ?)—Redflowered Maple (*Acer rubrum*.)

N. B. The above catalogue is far from being complete, but may serve to give a tolerable idea of this class of shrubs, in the United States.

FOREST TREES.] Were we possessed of accurate materials for the purpose, it would far exceed the limits of a work embracing such a variety of subjects, to give a complete catalogue of our trees. From the foregoing catalogues the reader must necessarily conclude that they are very numerous. And it ought to be observed that almost all of them, for some purpose or other, have been used as timber. Some of the most useful species of trees, however, must not be omitted, and are the following—ELM (*Ulmus americana*) Of this tree there is but one species* of which there are

* Query. Is not what is called the *Sweet Elm*, the bark of which is used medicinally, and highly esteemed, a different species from the *Ulmus Americana* ?—

two varieties, the white and the red.—WILD CHERRY; many species, highly valued for cabinet work.—LOCUST (*Robinia pseudo-acacia*) of quick growth, good for fuel, and excellent for posts to set in the ground, and trunnels for ships.—BIRCH; several species, 1. White (*Betula alba*) 2. Black (*Betula nigra*) 3. Red or Yellow (*Betula lenta*)—OAK; several species, 1. Black (*Quercus niger*) 2. Red (*Quercus rubra*) three varieties. 3. White (*Quercus alba*) 4. Shrub or Ground Oak (*Quercus pumila*) 5. Chestnut Oak (*Quercus prinus*) 6. Live Oak (*Quercus sempervirens*—*Quercus Virginiana*, Millar.) 7. Black Jack Oak (*Quercus aquatica*, Clayton) The two last are peculiar to the southern States.—CHESNUT (*Fagus castanea*) chiefly used for fencing. BEACH (*Fagus sylvatica*) three varieties.—PINE (*Pinus*) seven species. 1. White (*Pinus strobus*) the prince of the American forests, in size, age, and majesty of appearance. It is found in the greatest abundance in Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont—Excellent for masts, bowsprits and yards for ships.—2. Yellow (*Pinus pinea*) its plank and boards are used for the floors of houses and the decks of ships—3. Black or Pitch Pine (*Pinus taeda*) when burnt in kilns it makes the best of charcoal; its knots and roots being full of the terebinthine oil, when kindled, afford a brighter light than candles; its foot is collected and used for lampblack. It grows sparingly in the New England and middle States, but in the greatest plenty in the southern States, between the sea-coast and the mountains. From it they make tar in large quantities. 4. The Larch (*Pinus larix*) Its turpentine is said to be the same with the Burgundy pitch. Besides these, naturalists reckon the Fir (*Pinus balsamea*)—Spruce (*Pinus canadensis*)—Hemlock (*Pinus abies*)—ARBOR VITÆ (*Thuya occidentalis*) the same as what is called WHITE CEDAR.—JUNIPER OR RED CEDAR (*Juniperus virginica*) It produces the Juniperberry.—WHITE CEDAR, of the southern States (*Cupressus Thyoides*) different from the white cedar of the northern States.—CYPRESS (*Cupressus disticha*) Found only in the southern States—Used for shingles and other purposes. Grows in swamps, very large. WHITE WILLOW (*Salix alba*) The bark of its root is an excellent substitute for the Peruvian bark.—ASH (*Fraxinus americana*) two species, Black, or Swamp Ash, and White Ash.—MAPLE, three species; 1. White (*Acer negundo*) much used in cabinet work. 2. Red (*Acer rubrum*) 3. Black Rock or Sugar Maple (*Acer saccharinum*) Its sap has a saccharine quality; and when refined and hardened by boiling and baking, makes a well-tasted and wholesome sugar, the manufacture of which has greatly increased in the eastern and middle States, within a few years past.

There is in the United States, an infinitude of trees of less note, and many probably equally noticeable with those enumerated, for a catalogue and descriptions of which, I must refer the reader, (till a more perfect catalogue be furnished by Dr. Cutler and Dr. Barton, to Catesby's Natural History—Dr. Clayton's Flora Virginica—Mr. Jefferson's Notes on Virginia—Mr. Bartram's Travels through North and South Carolina, &c.—Dr. Cutler's paper in the Memoirs of the American Academy—and Dr. Belknap's History of New Hampshire, Vol. III.

EXOTIC FRUITS.] Of these, Apples are the most common in the United States. They grow in the greatest plenty and variety in the eastern and middle States; and the cyder which is expressed from them, affords the most common and wholesome liquor that is drank by the inhabitants. The Crab Apple (*Pyrus coronaria*) though not an exotic, on account of its being a genuine, but distinct species of the Apple, ought to be mentioned in this connection. It grows in all parts of North America, which have been explored, from the Atlantic as far west as the Mississippi. Its blossoms are remarkably fragrant; its fruit small, possessing, perhaps, of all vegetables, the

keenest acid. The cyder made of this fruit is admired by connoisseurs : it makes excellent vinegar. The European Crab Apple is very different from ours. The other exotic fruits are pears, peaches, quinces, mulberries, plums, cherries, currants, barberries, of all which, except quinces and barberries, we have many species and varieties. These, with a few apricots and nectarines, flourish in the eastern States, and are in perfection in the middle States.*

The exotic fruits of the southern states, besides those already mentioned, are figs, oranges, and lemons.

PULSE AND HORTULINE PLANTS AND ROOTS.] Besides those transplanted from Europe to America, of which we have all the various kinds that Europe produces, the following are natives of this country, Potatoes, (*Solanum tuberosum*) Ground Nuts, a sort of potatoe, probably a species, highly relished by some people ; Tobacco (*Nicotiana*)—Pumpkins (*Cucurbita pepo*)—Cynlins (*Cucurbita verrucosa*)—Squashes (*Cucurbita melopepo*) Cantelope melons, Beans, Peas, Hops. Probably others.

ANIMALS.] America contains, at least, one half, and the territory of the United States about one fourth of the quadrupeds of the known world. Some of them are common to North America, and to the European and Asiatic parts of the Eastern Continent ; others are peculiar to this country. All those that are common to both continents, are found in the northern parts of them, and are such as may be supposed to have migrated from one continent to the other. Comparing individuals of the same species, inhabiting the different continents, some are perfectly similar ; between others, there is some difference in size, colour, or other circumstances ; in some few instances the European animal is larger than the American ; in others, the reverse is true. A similar variety, arising from the temperature of the climate, quantity of food furnished in the parts they inhabit, degree of safety,† &c. takes place between individuals of the same species, in different parts of this continent.

But our information on this subject is not sufficient to authorize many observations. It is very probable that some of our quadrupeds are utterly unknown ; others are known only by common report, from hunters and others, and therefore could not be scientifically described ; and with respect to many others, the multiplying and misapplying names has produced great uncertainty and confusion.

The Rev. Dr. Cutler has obliged me with the following Catalogue of our Animals, with their Linnæan names annexed.

Seal	-	-	-	<i>Phoca vitulina.</i>
Wolf	-	-	-	<i>Canis lupus</i>
Red Fox	-	-	-	<i>Canis alopec ?</i>
Grey Fox	-	-	-	<i>Canis.</i>
Wild cat	-	-	-	<i>Felis lynx.</i>
Skunk	-	-	-	<i>Viverra putorius.</i>
Otter	-	-	-	<i>Mustella lutra ?</i>
Martin	-	-	-	<i>Mustela.——</i>
Weasel	-	-	-	<i>Mustela martes ?</i>

* In regard to tree fruit" (says Dr. Tenny of Exeter, in New Hampshire, in a letter to Dr. Belknap) "we are in too northern a climate to have it of the first quality, without particular attention. New York, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, have it in perfection. As you depart from that tract, either southward or northward, it degenerates. I believe, however, that good fruit might be produced even in New Hampshire, with suitable attention.

Belknap's Hist. N. H. Vol. III. p. 140.

† Animals in America which have been hunted for their flesh or fur, such as the moose, deer, beaver, &c. have become less in size since the arrival of the Europeans.

Ermine	-	-	-	Mustela erminea.
Bear	-	-	-	Ursus arctos.
Racoon	-	-	-	Ursus lotor.
Wolverine	-	-	-	Ursus luscus.
Wood chuck	-	-	-	(Ursi vel mustelæ species.)
Mole	-	-	-	Talpa europea.
Shrew mouse	-	-	-	Sorex cristatus.
Ground mouse	-	-	-	Sorex murinus.
Field mouse	-	-	-	Sorex araneus.
Porcupine	-	-	-	Hystrix dorsata.
Hare	-	-	-	Lepus timidus ?
Rabbit	-	-	-	Lepus cuniculus.
Beaver	-	-	-	Castor fiber.
Musquash	-	-	-	Castor zibethicus.
Mink	-	-	-	---
Black rat	-	-	-	Mus---
Black squirrel	-	-	-	Sciurus niger.
Grey ditto	-	-	-	Sciurus cinereus.
Red ditto	-	-	-	Sciurus flavus.
Striped ditto	-	-	-	Sciurus striatus.
Flying ditto	-	-	-	Sciurus volans.
Moose	-	-	-	Cervus tarandus.
Deer	-	-	-	Cervus dama.
			Mamillary biped	
Bat	-	-	-	Vespertilio murinus.

The importance of this part of our natural history has induced me to pay the most assiduous attention to it, and to seek information from every authority on the subject. With the liberal and generous assistance of an ingenious friend,* I have been enabled to form the following catalogue of the Quadruped animals within the United States, and to add the descriptions of them which succeed.

Mammouth	* Caribou	* Bear	* Catamount
Hippotamus †	* Red Deer	* Wolverine	* Cougar
* Bison	* Fallow Deer	* Wolf	* Mountain Cat
* Moose	* Roe	* Fox	* Lynx
* Margay	* Opossum	* Flying Squirrel	* Musquash
* Kincajou	* Woodchuck	Bat	* Mole
* Weasel	Urchin	* Field mouse	* Seal
* Ermine	* Hare	* Wood Rat	Maniti
* Martin	* Racoon	* Shrew Mouse	Sapajou
* Mink	* Fox Squirrel	* Purple Mole	Sagoin
* Otter	* Grey Squirrel	* Black Mole	
* Fisher	* Red Squirrel	* Water Rat	
* Skrunk	* Striped Squirrel	* Beaver	

N. B. Those Animals to which an asterism * is prefixed, are fur animals; whose skins are sometimes dressed in alium, with the hair on, and worn in dress; or whose fur or soft hair is used for various manufactural purposes.

* Dr. Fisher of Beverly.

† This animal is added upon the authority of Dr. Mitchell, Prof. Nat. Hist. &c. Columbia College, N. York.

The Wolf, Fox, Weasel, Ermine, Otter, Flying Squirrel, Bat, and Water Rat, are of the same species with the European animals of the same name.

The Fallow Deer, Grey Fox, Martin, Otter, Opossum, Woodchuck, Hare, some of these Squirrels, and the Beaver, have been tamed. Probably most of these, and some others, might be perfectly domesticated. It has been observed of our wild animals, in general, that they are not of so savage a nature as those in Europe.

Of the animals supposed to be larger in America than in Europe, are the following, viz. Moose or Elk, Fallow Deer, Bear, Weasel, Otter, and Beaver. Of those that are less, are the Hare, Red Squirrel, and Shrew Mouse.

MAMMOTH.] This name has been given to an unknown animal, whose bones are found in the northern parts of both the old and new world. From the form of their teeth, they are supposed to have been carnivorous. Like the elephant they were armed with tusks of ivory; but they obviously differed from the elephant in size; their bones prove them to have been 5 or 6 times as large. These enormous bones are found in several parts of North America, * particularly about the salt licks or springs, near the Ohio river. These licks were formerly frequented by a vast number of graminivorous animals, on account of the salt, of which they are excessively fond. From the appearance of these bones, some of which are entirely above ground, others wholly buried, it is probable that the animals died at different periods, some perhaps as lately as the first settlement of this country by the Europeans.

Mr. Jefferson informs us, that a late governor of Virginia, having asked some delegates of the Delawares, what they knew or had heard respecting this animal, the chief speaker

* Col. G. Morgan, in a note to the Author, says they are found "only at the salt licks on the Ohio; some few scattered grinders, have indeed been found in other places; but it has been supposed these have been brought from the above-mentioned deposit, by Indian warriors and others who have passed it; as we know many have been spread in this manner. When I first visited this salt lick, says the Col. in 1766, I met here a large party of the Iroquois and Wyandot Indians, who were then on a war expedition against the Chickasaw tribe. The head chief was a very old man to be engaged in war; he told me he was 84 years old; he was probably as much as 80. I fixed on this venerable chief, as a person from whom some knowledge might be obtained. After making him some small acceptable presents of tobacco, paint, ammunition, &c. and complimenting him upon the wisdom of his nation, their prowess in war and prudence in peace, intimated to him my ignorance respecting the great bones before us, which nothing but his superior knowledge could remove; and accordingly requested him to inform me what he knew concerning them. Agreeably to the customs of his nation, he answered me in substance, as follows.

"Whilst I was yet a boy I passed this road, several times, to war against the Catawbas; and the wise old chiefs, among whom was my grandfather, then gave me the tradition, handed down to us, respecting these bones, the like to which are found in no other part of the country." It is as follows:

"After the Great Spirit first formed the world, he made the various birds and beasts, which now inhabit it. He also made man; but having formed him white, and very imperfect and ill-tempered, he placed him on one side of it where he now inhabits, and from whence he has lately found a passage across the great water to be a plague to us. As the Great Spirit was not pleased with this his work, he took of black clay, and made what you call a Negro, with a woolly head. This black man was much better than the white man, but still he did not answer the wish of the Great Spirit, that is, he was imperfect; at last, the Great Spirit having procured a piece of pure, fine red clay, formed from it, the Red Man, perfectly to his mind; and he was so well pleased with him, that he placed him on this great island, separate from the white and black men; and gave him rules for his conduct, promising happiness in proportion as they should be observed. He increased exceedingly, and was perfectly happy for ages; but the foolish young people, at length forgetting his rules, became exceedingly ill-tempered and wicked. In consequence of this, the Great Spirit created the great buffalo, the bones of which you now see before us; these made war upon the human species alone, and destroyed all but a few, who repented and promised the Great Spirit to live according to his laws, if he would restrain the devouring enemy: whereupon he sent lightning and thunder and destroyed the whole race, in this spot, two excepted, a male and a female, which he shut up in yonder mountain, ready to let loose again, should occasion require."

Col. Morgan adds, "I have every material bone of the anatomy of this animal, with several jaw bones in which the grinders are entire; and several of the great tusks, one of which is six feet long"---He adds, "and twenty

speaker immediately put himself into an oratorical attitude, and with a pomp suited to the supposed elevation of his subject, informed him that it was a tradition handed down from their fathers, "That in ancient times a herd of them came to the Big-bone Licks, and began an universal destruction of the bears, deer, elks, buffaloes, and other animals which had been created for the use of the Indians: that the Great Man above, looking down and seeing this, was so enraged that he seized his lightning, descended to the earth, seated himself upon a neighbouring mountain, on a rock, on which his seat and the print of his feet are still to be seen, and hurled his bolts among them till the whole were slaughtered, except the big bull, who, presenting his forehead to the shafts, shook them off as they fell; but at length missing one, it wounded him in the side; whereon, springing round, he bounded over the Ohio, the Wabash, the Illinois, and, finally, over the great lakes, where he is living at this day *."

HIPPOPOTAMUS.] That this animal ever existed in America was not supposed till a few years ago. The ingenious Dr. Mitchill, in a letter to the author, says, "That in the year 1788, some teeth were dug up in Long Island, which, from their shape, size, and consistence, beyond a doubt, belong to the HIPPOPOTAMUS. Some of them, which were presented to me, I forwarded to Mr. Peale of Philadelphia. They agree exactly with those of the same animal, which I saw in the Ashmolean Museum at Oxford, and in the Leverian Collection at London. They moreover correspond, precisely, with the plate and description of that animal's skull and jaws, as given by Dr. Grew, in *Museo Regalis Societatis*; and printed at London in folio, 1681. He is, therefore, worthy of a place in our history as well as the Mammoth."

BISON.] This animal has generally been called the Buffalo, but very improperly, as this name has been appropriated to another animal. He is of the same species with our common neat cattle, their difference being the effect of domestication. Compared with the neat cattle, the Bison is considerably larger, especially about the fore parts of his body. On his shoulders arises a large fleshy or grizzly substance, which extends along the back. The hair on his head, neck, and shoulders, is long and woolly, and all of it is fit to be spun or wrought into hats. Calves from the domestic cow and wild bulls are sometimes raised; but when they grow up, they become so wild that no common fence will confine them.—Is found in the middle states.

These animals were once exceedingly numerous in the western parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania; and so late as the year 1766, herds of 400 were frequently seen in Kentucky, and from thence to the Mississippi.

The American forests abound with various animals of the deer kind: naturalists have arranged them differently. I have followed M. de Buffon, who has reduced them all to the several species known in Europe.

MOOSE.] Of these there are two kinds, the black and the grey. The black are said to have been from 8 to 12 feet high; at present they are very rarely seen. The grey Moose are generally as tall as a horse, and some are much taller; both have spreading

twenty in circumference." But supposing some mistake, and that probably the word *inches* ought to have been added to the *twenty*, I have not ventured to add it—or to alter it.

Salt works, of considerable importance, have been established at the lick, where these bones are found.

* It has been said by Mr. Jefferson, that the grinders of the Mammoth are five or six times as large as those of the elephant. Col. Morgan says not; "I have seen," he observes, "the grinder of an elephant as large and as heavy as the largest of the Mammoth.—They are indeed thinner, deeper rooted, and differently shaped, denoting a graminivorous animal; whereas the grinders of the Mammoth resemble those of a wolf or dog, and shew them to have been carnivorous."

palmated.

palmated horns, weighing from 30 to 40 pounds. These are shed annually, in the month of February. They never run, but trot with amazing speed. In summer they feed on wild grasses, and the leaves of the most mucilaginous shrubs. In winter they form herds; and when the snow falls, by moving constantly in a small circle, they tread the snow hard, and form what is called a pen.* While the snow is deep and will not bear them, they are confined within this pen, and eat all the bark and twigs within their reach. They are considered as of the same species with the Elk of the eastern continent.—They are found in New-England.

CARIBOU.] This animal is distinguished by its branching palmated horns, with brow antlers. He is probably the rein deer of the northern parts of Europe. From the tendons of this animal, as well as of the Moose, the aboriginal natives made very tolerable thread.—Found in the District of Main.

DEER.] The *Red Deer* * has round branching horns. Of this species we have three or four different kinds or varieties; one of which, found on the Ohio river, and in its vicinity, is very large, and there commonly called the ELK.

The FALLOW DEER * has branching palmated horns. In the United States, these animals are larger than the European, of a different colour, and supposed by some, to be of a different species. In the southern states, are several animals, supposed to be varieties of the ROE DEER.*

BEAR.] Of this animal two sorts are found in the northern states; both are black, but different in their forms and habits. One has short legs, a thick, clumsy body, is generally fat, and is very fond of sweet vegetable food, such as sweet apples, Indian corn in the milk, berries, grapes, honey, &c. Probably he is not carnivorous. As soon as the first snow falls, he betakes himself to his den, which is a hole in a cleft of rocks, a hollow tree, or some such place; here he gradually becomes torpid, and dozes away the winter, sucking his paws, and expending the stock of fat which he had previously acquired.

The other sort is distinguished by the name of the RANGING BEAR, and seems to be a grade between the preceding and the wolf. His legs are longer, and his body more lean and gaunt. He is carnivorous, frequently destroying calves, sheep, and pigs; and sometimes children. In winter he migrates to the southward. The former appears to be the common black bear of Europe; the latter corresponds to the brown bear of the Alps; and is probably of the same species with those spoken of II. Kings ii. 24th, which formerly inhabited the mountainous parts of Judea, between Jericho and Bethel.—Found in all the States.

The WOLVERENE, called in Canada the *Curcajou*, and by hunters, the *Beaver Eater*, seems to be a grade between the bear and the woodchuck. He agrees exactly with the badger of Europe. His length is $1\frac{1}{2}$ feet and upwards; his circumference nearly two feet; his head and ears resemble a woodchuck's; his legs short; feet and paws large and strong; tail about seven inches long, black, and very bushy or shaggy; hair about two inches long, and very coarse; his head, fallow grey; back almost black; breast, spotted with white; belly, dark brown; sides and rump, light reddish brown. This animal lives in holes, cannot run fast, and has a clumsy appearance. He is very mischievous to hunters, following them when setting their traps, and destroying their game, particularly the beaver.—Found in the northern States.

* The male of the Red Deer is called *Stag*; the female, *Hind*; the young, *Calf*. The male of the Fallow Deer is called *Buck*; the female, *Do*; the young, *Fawn*. The *Roe Buck*, and *Roe Doe*, are the male and female of the Roe.

WOLF.] Of this animal, which is of the dog kind, or rather of the dog himself in his savage state, we have great numbers, and a considerable variety in size and colour. The dimensions of a skin, measured for writing this account, were as follows: length of the body 5 feet; the fore legs 18 inches; of the hind legs 15 inches; of the tail 18 inches. The circumference of the body was from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 feet. The colour of these animals in the northern States is generally a light dirty fallow, with a list of black along their back. In some, the black is extended down their sides, and sometimes forms waving fireaks; others are said to be spotted: some of them, particularly in the southern States, are entirely black, and considerably smaller. The Indians are said to have so far tamed some of these animals before their acquaintance with the Europeans, as to have used them in hunting. They next made use of European dogs, and afterwards of mongrels, the offspring of the wolf and dog, as being more docile than the former, and more eager in the chase than the latter. The appearance of many of the dogs, in the newly-settled parts of the country, indicate their relation to the wolf.—Found in all the States.

FOX.] Of foxes we have a great variety; such as the Silver Fox, Red Fox, Grey Fox, Cross Fox, Brant Fox, and several others. Naturalists have generally supposed that there is more than one species of foxes, but they differ very much in their mode of arranging them. It is highly probable, however, that there is but one species of these animals, as they are found in all their varieties of size, and of shades variously intermixed, in different parts of the United States. Foxes and other animals furnished with fur, of the northern States, are larger than those of the southern.

CATAMOUNT.] This animal, the most dreaded by hunters of any of the inhabitants of the forests, is rarely seen, which is probably the reason why no account of him has ever been published, to our knowledge, except what is contained in a letter of Mr. Collinson's to M. de Buffon. The dimensions of one, killed a few years ago, in New Hampshire, as nearly as could be ascertained by the skin, were as follows: the length of his body (including the head) 6 feet; circumference of his body $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet; length of his tail 3 feet, and of his legs about one foot. The colour, along his back, is nearly black; on his sides, a dark reddish brown; his feet black. He seems not calculated for running, but leaps with surprizing agility. His favourite food is blood, which, like other animals of the cat kind, he takes from the jugular vessels of cattle, deer, &c. leaving the carcase. Smaller prey he takes to his den; and he has been known to carry off a child. He seems to be allured by fire, which terrifies all other carnivorous animals, and betrays no fear of either man or beast.—He is found in the northern and middle States.

COUGAR.] The body of this animal is about 5 feet long; his legs longer in proportion to his body, than those of the common cat. His colour is a dark fallow. In his habits and manners he resembles the rest of the family.—He is found in the southern States, and there called the Tyger.

MOUNTAIN CAT.] (*Pardalis*, Linn. *Ocelot*, de Buffon.)—The length of his body is from $3\frac{1}{2}$ to four feet; his tail about 2 feet. His colour is a fallow ground, with black spots and stripes. The male has a black list along his back, and is the most beautiful animal of the cat kind. He is exceedingly fierce, but will seldom attack a man.—Found in the southern States.

LYNX.] We have three kinds of the Lynx, each probably forming a distinct species. The first, (*Lupus Cervarius*, Linn. 3d edit.) is called by the French and English Americans, *Loup Cervier*.* He is from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to three feet in length; his tail is about 5 inches.

* Pronounced Loocervee.

His hair is long, of a light grey colour, forming, in some places, small, irregular, dark shades; the end of his tail is black. His fur is fine and thick. He is the Lynx of Siberia, and some of the northern parts of Europe. A few may be found in the north-eastern parts of the district of Maine; but in the higher latitudes they are more numerous.

The *second*, (*Catus Cervarius*, Linn.) is called by the French Americans, *Chat Cervier*; and in New England, the Wild Cat. He is considerably less than the former, or the *Loup Cervier*. He is from 2 to 2½ feet long; his tail is proportionably shorter, about 3 inches long, and wants the tuft of black hair on the end of it. His hair is shorter, particularly on his legs and feet; is of a darker colour, brown, dark fallow, and grey, variously intermixed. His fur is said to be of a very different quality; his ears are shorter, and he has very little of the pencil of black hairs on the tips of them, which is so remarkable in the former kind. This animal destroyed many of the cattle of the first settlers of New England.

The *third* species is about the size of a common cat. The colour of the male is a bright brown or bay, with black spots on his legs. His tail is about 4 inches long, and encircled by 8 white rings: the female is of a reddish grey.—Found in the middle and southern States.

MARGAY.] This animal very much resembles the European wild-cat, both in form and size. His colour is like that of some of our tabby cats, dark waving streaks, on a fallow ground.—Found in the southern States.

KINCAJOU.] This animal is frequently confounded with the Careajou, though he resembles him in nothing but the name. He belongs to the family of cats; at least he very much resembles them. He is about as large as a common cat, and is better formed for agility and speed, than for strength. His tail gradually tapers to the end, and is as long as his whole body. His colour is yellow. Between him and the fox there is perpetual war. He hunts in the same manner as do other animals of that class; but being able to suspend himself by twining the end of his tail round the limb of a tree, or the like, he can pursue his prey where other cats cannot; and when he attacks a large animal, his tail enables him to secure his hold till he can open the blood vessels of the neck. In some parts of Canada these animals are very numerous, and make great havoc among the deer, and do not spare even the neat cattle. But we have heard of none in these states, except a few in the northern parts of New Hampshire.

The WEASEL is about nine inches in length; his body is remarkably round and slender; his tail long and well-furnished with hair; his legs very short, and his toes armed with sharp claws. His hair is short and thick, and of a pale yellowish colour, except about the breast, where it is white. This is a very sprightly animal; notwithstanding the shortness of its legs, it seems to dart rather than to run. He kills and eats rats, striped squirrels, and other small quadrupeds: he likewise kills fowls, sucks their blood, and esteems their eggs a delicacy.

The ERMINE does not differ materially from the weasel in size, form, or habits; even his colour is the same in summer, except that the end of his tail is black, and the edges of his ears and toes are white. In winter he is entirely white, except the tip of the tail. He is generally considered as forming a species distinct from the weasel; but Linnæus makes them the same.—They are said to be found in Canada; and Dr. Belknap mentions, that a few have been seen in New Hampshire.

In addition to the preceding, we have another variety of this family. It appears to differ from the weasel in no respect, except its colour, which is perfectly white, both in summer and winter.

MARTIN.] This animal is called the Martin (*Marte*) by M. de Buffon :—in England, the Pine Martin, Fir Martin, Yellow-breasted Martin, Pine Weasel, and Yellow-breasted Weasel; in New England the Sable; and by the Indians, Wauppanaugh. He is formed like the Weasel; is generally about sixteen inches long, and is of a fallow colour; but his size, and the shades of his colour, vary in different parts of the country. Some have spots of yellow on the breast, others of white, and others have none. He keeps in forests, chiefly on trees, and lives by hunting.—He is found in the northern States.

MINK.] The Mink is about as large as a martin, and of the same form. The hair on its tail is shorter; its colour is generally black; some have a white spot under their throats; others have none. They burrow in the ground, and pursue their prey both in fresh and salt water. Those which frequent the salt water are of a larger size, lighter colour, and have inferior fur. They are found in considerable numbers, both in the southern and northern States.

OTTER.] The Otter very much resembles the mink in its form and habits. Its colour is not so dark; its size much larger, being about 3 feet long and 15 inches in circumference. It lives in holes in banks near the water, and feeds on fish and amphibious animals.—Found in all the States.

FISHER.] In Canada he is called Pekan: in these states frequently the Black Cat, but improperly, as he does not belong to the class of cats. He has a general resemblance to the martin, but is considerably larger, being from 20 to 24 inches in length, and 12 in circumference. His tail is a little more than half his length; its hair long and bushy. His fore legs about $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, his hinder legs six inches. His ears short and round. His colour is black, except the head, neck, and shoulders, which are a dark grey. He lives by hunting, and occasionally pursues his prey in the water.—Found in the northern States.

SKUNK.] This animal is about a foot and an half long, of a moderate height and size. His tail is long and bushy; his hair long and chiefly black; but on his head, neck, and back, is found more or less of white, without any regularity or uniformity. He appears to see but indifferently when the sun shines; and therefore in the daytime keeps close to his burrow. As soon as the twilight commences, he goes in quest of his food, which is principally beetles and other insects: he is also very fond of eggs and young chickens. His flesh is said to be tolerably good, and his fat is sometimes used as an emollient. But what renders this animal remarkable is, his being furnished with organs for secreting and retaining a liquor, volatile and foetid beyond any thing known, and which he has the power of emitting to the distance of a rod or more, when necessary for his defence. When this ammunition is expended he is quite harmless.* This volatile foetor is a powerful antispasmodic.—Found in all the States.

Another

* Concerning the American skunk, Dr. Mitchell, in a letter to Dr. Post, 1788, writes thus: "Not long since I had an opportunity to dissect the American skunk (*Viverra putorius*, Linn.) The most remarkable appearances, on examination, were the following: the skin was exceedingly lax, inasmuch that when pulled away from the subjacent membrane, the hairs, in many places drawn through it, were left rooted in the fat; the urine possessed no more foetor than is common to that excrementitious fluid in many other animals: but the peculiar odoriferous substance, which the creature emits when pursued, proceeds from two sacks, each capable of containing about half an ounce, situated at the extremity of the *intestinum rectum*, and surrounded by large and strong circular muscles, which contracting by a voluntary exertion, force out the thick yellowish liquor through two ducts, opening near the verge of the anus. As the animal is neither swift nor strong, this seems to have been given it as a defence against its enemies, on whose approach the volatile matter is discharged with considerable force, and to no small distance. From its analogy to musk, ambergris, civet,

Another *Stinkard*, called the *Squash*, is said by Buffon, to be found in some of the southern States. He is of a chestnut colour; climbs trees, and kills poultry.

OPOSSUM.] This animal is about a foot and a half long; has a long pointed nose, furnished with long stiff hairs; ears thin and naked; tail naked, nearly as long as the body, and capable of holding the animal suspended; legs short; feet small and naked. He uses his forepaws like a monkey. His body is well covered with a woolly fur, white at the roots, and black at the ends. His hair is long, thin, and coarse; its colour black and white, forming a grey of various shades; and these different shades are often so intermixed as to give a spotted or variegated appearance. But the most singular part of this animal is a kind of false belly or pouch, with which the female is furnished; it is formed by a duplicature of the skin; is so placed as to include her teats, and has an aperture which she can open and shut at pleasure. She brings forth her young from four to six at a time, while they are not bigger than a bean; incloses them in this pouch, and they, from a principle of instinct, affix themselves to her teats: here they remain and are nourished till they are able to run about, and are afterwards taken in occasionally, particularly in time of danger. The Opossum feeds on vegetables, particularly fruit. He likewise kills poultry, sucks their blood, and eats their eggs. His fat is used instead of lard or butter.—Found in the southern and middle States.

WOODCHUCK.] (*Monax*, de Buffon.) His body is about sixteen inches long, and nearly the same in circumference; his tail is moderately long, and full of hair. His colour is a mixture of fallow and grey. He digs a burrow in, or near, some cultivated field, and feeds on pulse, the tops of cultivated clover, &c. He is generally very fat, excepting in the spring. The young are good meat; the old are rather rank and disagreeable. In the beginning of October they retire to their burrows, and live in a torpid state about six months. In many respects he agrees with the *Marmot* of the Alps; in others he differs, and on the whole is probably not the same.

An animal resembling the Woodchuck is found in the southern States, which is supposed to form another species.

URCHIN.] The Urchin, or Urson, is about two feet in length, and, when fat, the same in circumference. He is commonly called Hedge-hog or Porcupine, but differs from both those animals in every characteristic mark, excepting his being armed with quills on his back and sides. These quills are nearly as large as a wheat straw, from three to four inches long, and, unless erected, nearly covered by the animal's hair. Their points are very hard, and filled with innumerable very small barbs or scales, whose points are raised from the body of the quill. When the Urchin is attacked by a dog, wolf, or other beast of prey, he throws himself into a posture of defence, by shortening his body, elevating his back, and erecting his quills. The assailant soon finds some of those weapons stuck into his mouth, or other part of his body, and every effort which he makes to free himself, causes them to penetrate the farther; they have been known to bury themselves entirely in a few minutes. Sometimes they prove fatal; at other times they make their way out again through the skin from various

and eastor, I am strongly inclined to think it might be with advantage ranked among the *antispasmodics* of the *Materia Medica*, or classed with drugs in the shops of perfumers.

A similar substance, although not so abundant and fragrant, I have likewise found in bags of the same kind, when I dissected the common weasel, (*Mustela vulgaris*) which, in all probability, will be found to possess virtues not much differing from the *Spodnar*, or liquor of the *Viverra*, or the American skunk.

The Musquash (*Castor muschatus*) which I have also dissected, has no sacks of this kind, and therefore I am forcibly led to suspect that its odour resides in the cuticular exhalants, and perspired matter."

parts of the body. If not molested, the Urchin is an inoffensive animal. He finds a hole or hollow which he makes his residence, and feeds on the bark and roots of vegetables. His flesh, in the opinion of hunters, is equal to that of a sucking pig.—Is found in the northern States.

HARE.] Of this animal we have two kinds, which appear to be different species: the one is commonly called the White Rabbit, or Coney; the other simply the Rabbit; but from the proportional length of their hinder legs, and other specific marks, they both belong to the family of the hare. The former has a covering of coarse white hair, which comes on before winter, and falls off the ensuing spring. He is about half the size of a large European hare, and twice as large as the other kind. The latter burrows in the ground like a rabbit. They are both found in the same tract of country, but have not been known to associate. The former is found in the northern States, and appears to be the same as the hare of the northern part of Europe; the latter is found in all the States, and is probably a species peculiar to America.

RACCOON.] The Raccoon, in the form and size of his body, resembles the fox; his legs are larger and shorter. His toes are long, and armed with sharp claws. His body is grey; his tail annulated with alternate rings of black and brown. In his manners he resembles the squirrel; like him he lives on trees, feeds on Indian corn, acorns, &c. and serves himself with his fore paws. His flesh is good meat, and his fur is valued by the hat-makers.—He is found in all the climates of the temperate zone in North America.

THE FOX SQUIRREL.] Of this animal there are several varieties, black, red, and grey. It is nearly twice as large as the common grey squirrel, and is found in the southern States, and is peculiar to this continent.

The GREY SQUIRREL of America does not agree exactly with that of Europe, but is generally considered as of the same species. Its name indicates its general colour; but some are black, and others black on the back, and grey on the sides. They make a nest of moss in a hollow tree, and here they deposit their provision of nuts and acorns; this is the place of their residence during the winter, and here they bring forth their young. Their summer house, which is built of sticks and leaves, is placed near the top of the tree. They sometimes migrate in considerable numbers. If in their course they meet with a river, each of them takes a shingle, piece of bark, or the like, and carries it to the water. Thus equipped, they embark, and erect their tails to the gentle breeze, which soon wafts them over in safety; but a sudden flaw of wind sometimes produces a destructive shipwreck. The greater part of the males of this species is found castrated.

A Grey Squirrel is found in Virginia, nearly twice as large as this. Whether it be the same, or a different species, is uncertain.

The RED SQUIRREL is less than the grey squirrel. It has a red list along its back, grey on its sides, and white under the belly. It differs in some respects from the common European squirrel; but M. de Buffon considers it as the same species. Its food is the same as that of the grey squirrel, except that it sometimes feeds on the seeds of the pine and other evergreens; hence it is sometimes called the pine squirrel, and is found farther to the northward than the grey squirrel. It spends part of its time on trees in quest of food; but considers its hole, under some rock or log, as its home.

The STRIPED SQUIRREL is still less than the last mentioned. Its colour is red. It has a narrow stripe of black along its back: at the distance of about half an inch, on each side, is a stripe of white, bordered with very narrow stripes of black. Its belly

belly is white. In the males, the colours are brighter and better defined than in the female. It is sometimes called a mouse squirrel, and ground squirrel, from its forming a burrow in loose ground. Linnæus confounds it with a striped mouse squirrel, found in the north of Asia; but that animal is represented as in some measure resembling the mouse; whereas our's is a genuine squirrel. In the summer it feeds on apples, peaches, and various kinds of fruit and seeds; and for its winter store lays up nuts, acorns, and grain. It sometimes ascends trees in quest of food, but always descends on the appearance of danger; nor does it feel secure but in its hole, a stone wall, or some covert place.—Found in the northern and middle States.

FLYING SQUIRREL.] This is the least and most singular of the class of squirrels. A duplicature of the skin connects the fore and hinder legs together: by extending this membrane, it is able to leap much farther, and to alight with more safety than other squirrels. It lives in the holes of trees, and feeds on seeds.—Is found in all the States.

BAT.] The Bat is so common and so singular a creature that a particular description of it is unnecessary.—Found both in America and Europe.

FIELD MOUSE.] This species in England is called the short-tailed field mouse. It has a general resemblance to the common house mouse; but both its body and tail are larger and his hair has a slight reddish tint. Its food depends very much on its situation. In gardens it often destroys young fruit trees by eating their bark; in fields and meadows it feeds on the roots of grass, sometimes leaving a groove in the sward, which appears as if it had been cut out with a gouge. In woods, they are said to feed on acorns, and to lay up a large store of them in their burrows.

WOOD RAT.] “This is a very curious animal; not half the size of the domestic rat; of a dark brown or black colour; their tails slender and short in proportion, and covered thinly with short hair. They are singular with respect to their ingenuity and great labour in constructing their habitations, which are conical pyramids, about three or four feet high, constructed with dry branches, which they collect with great labour and perseverance, and pile up without any apparent order; yet they are so interwoven with one another, that it would take a bear or wild cat some time to pull one of these castles to pieces, and allow the animals sufficient time to retreat with their young.

“There is likewise a ground rat, twice as large as the common rat, which burrows in the ground.”—*Bartram's Travels*.

SHREW MOUSE.] This is the smallest of quadrupeds, and holds nearly the same place among them as the humming bird does among the feathered race. Some of the European shrew mice are three inches long: we have seen but two or three of the American, and those dried; but should not judge that those ever exceeded two inches. Their head, which constitutes about one third of their whole length, has some resemblance to that of a mole; the ears are wanting; their eyes scarcely visible; the nose very long, pointed, and furnished with long hairs. In other respects these resemble the common mouse. They live in woods, and are supposed to feed on grain and insects.—Found in New England.

MOLE.] The Purple Mole is found in Virginia; the Black Mole in New England; he lives in and about the water: they differ from one another, and both from the European.

The WATER RAT is about the size of the common rat; brown on the back and white under the belly; feeds on aquatic animals.

BEAVER.] The Beaver is an amphibious animal, which cannot live for any length of time in the water; and can exist without it, provided he has the convenience of sometimes

sometimes bathing himself. The largest beavers, formerly, were four feet in length, and weighed fifty or sixty pounds. At present they are not more than three feet in length, and may weigh from twenty-five to thirty pounds. The head of this animal is large, and his ears short and round. Their fore teeth are prominent, long, broad, strong, and grooved or hollowed like a gouge. Their fore legs are short, with toes separate; their hinder legs are long, with toes webbed. The tail is large, broad, and scaly, resembling the body of a fish. Their colour is generally a dark brown, but varies according to the climate they inhabit. Their hair is long and coarse; the fur very thick, fine, and highly valued. The castor used in medicine is found in sacks formed behind the kidneys.

Their houses are always situated in the water; sometimes they make use of a natural pond, but generally they choose to form one by building a dam across some brook or rivulet. For this purpose they select a number of sapplings of soft wood, generally of less than six inches diameter, but sometimes of sixteen or eighteen inches; these they fell and divide into proper lengths, and place them in the water, so that the length of the sticks make the width of the dam. These sticks they lay in mud or clay, their tails serving them for trowels, as their teeth did for axes. These dams are six or eight feet thick at bottom, sloping on the side opposed to the stream, and are about a quarter as broad at top as at bottom. Near the top of the dam they leave one or more waste ways, or sliding places, to carry off the surplus water.

The formation of their cabins is no less remarkable. They consist of two stories, one under, the other above water. They are shaped like the oval beehive; and of a size proportioned to the number of inhabitants. The walls of the lower apartments are two or three feet thick, formed like their dams; those of the upper story are thinner, and the whole, on the inside, plastered with mud. Each family constructs and inhabits its own cabin. The upper apartments are curiously strewn with leaves, and rendered neat, clean, and comfortable. The winter never surprizes these animals, before their business is completed; for their houses are generally finished by the last of September, and their stock of provisions laid in, which consists of small pieces of wood deposited in the lower apartments. Before a storm, all hands are employed in repairing or strengthening their dams. They retain this industrious habit even after they are domesticated. In summer they roam abroad and feed on leaves, twigs, and food of that kind. These beavers are considered as the same species as those in Europe, but are vastly superior to them in every respect.

There is likewise a race of beavers, called *terriers*, who dig holes and live a solitary unsocial life. These are probably savages, who have never formed themselves into societies, and consequently have not made those improvements, which are to be acquired only in a social state.—Found in all the States.

The MUSQUASH or MUSK RAT is about fifteen inches in length, and a foot in circumference. His tail is nearly a foot long, his hair very short; the colour on his back, dark; on his sides, generally reddish; his head and tail very much resemble those of a rat. This animal is furnished with glands, which secrete a substance that has the smell of musk. In his mode of living, he is a distant imitator of the beaver; builds a rude cabin in shallow water, and feeds on vegetables.—Found in the northern and middle States.

The MORSE or SEA COW, more properly called the Sea Elephant; has two large ivory tusks, which shoot from the upper jaw: its head also is formed like that of the elephant, and would entirely resemble it in that part, if it had a trunk; but the morse is deprived of that instrument which serves the elephant in place of an arm and hand;

hand, and has real arms. These members, like those of the seal, are shut up within the skin, so that nothing appears outwardly but its hands and feet. Its body is long and tapering, thickest towards the neck; the toes and the hands, or feet, are covered with a membrane, and terminated by short and sharp-pointed claws. Excepting the two great tusks, and the cutting teeth, the morse perfectly resembles the seal; it is only much larger and stronger, the morse being commonly from twelve to sixteen feet in length, and eight or nine in circumference: whereas the largest seals are no more than seven or eight feet long. The morses and seals frequent the same places. They have the same habits in every respect, except, that there are fewer varieties of the morse than of the seal; they are likewise more attached to one particular climate, and are rarely found, except in the northern seas.

The SEAL, of which there are several species, is an amphibious animal, living the greater part of the time in the sea, and feeds on marine plants. These animals formerly frequented our northern shores; but at present have nearly forsaken them.

MANATI.] This animal forms the connecting link between beasts and fishes. It cannot be called a quadruped; nor can it entirely be termed a fish; it partakes of the nature of the fish by its two feet or hands; but the hinder legs, which are almost wholly concealed in the bodies of the seal and morse, are entirely wanting in the manati. Instead of two short feet, and a small, narrow tail, which is placed in a horizontal direction in the morse, the manati has only a thick tail, spread out broad like a fan. It is a very clumsy misshapen animal, with a head thicker than that of an ox; eyes small; and the two feet are placed near the head, for the purpose of swimming. It is of sufficient size to form a load for two oxen. Its flesh, which is more like beef than fish, is said to be excellent for eating. They are about 15 feet long, and 6 broad. As this animal has only fore feet, it has obtained the name of Manati, i. e. "an animal with both hands." The female has breasts placed forward like those of a woman, and she generally brings forth two young ones at a time, which she suckles. It is not properly amphibious; it only raises its head out of the water to feed on the herbage by the sea-side.—This animal is very common in South America, and some, it is said, have been found in the southern States.

SAPAJOU. SAGOIN.] There are various species of animals said to inhabit the country on the lower part of the Mississippi, called Sapajous and Sagoins. The former are capable of suspending themselves by their tails; the latter are not. They have a general resemblance to monkeys; but are not sufficiently known, to be particularly described.

BIRDS.] Several catalogues of the birds in the southern and middle States have been published by different authors; and one, of those in New Hampshire, by Dr. Belknap; but no general catalogue of the birds in the American States has yet appeared. The following catalogue, which claims to be the most full and complete of any yet published, though far from perfection, has been carefully selected from Bartram's Travels, Jefferson's Notes on Virginia, Belknap's History of New Hampshire, and a Manuscript furnished by Dr. Cutler. Bartram's catalogue, as far as it extends, appears to be the most accurate and complete, and his mode of arrangement the most natural and intelligible; I have therefore adopted it, and inserted his notes and references.*

Popular

* The birds to whose names in this catalogue, these marks [* † ‡ || ¶] are prefixed, are land birds, which, according to Bartram, are seen in Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia and Florida, from the sea-coast westward to the Appalachian mountains, viz.

* These

Popular Names.

The OWL.

- † Great White Owl
- ¶ Great Horned Owl
- † Great Horned White Owl
- § Horned Owl
- ¶ Whoooting Owl
- † Sharp Winged or Speckled Owl
- ¶ Little Screech Owl
- § Barn Owl—

The VULTURE.

- || Turkey Buzzard
- || White Tailed Vulture
- || Black Vulture, or Carrion Crow

EAGLE and HAWK.

- ¶ Great Grey Eagle
- ¶ Bald Eagle
- * Fishing Eagle
- ¶ Great Eagle Hawk
- ¶ Hen Hawk
- ¶ Chicken Hawk
- * Pigeon Hawk
- ¶ Black Hawk
- * Marsh Hawk
- * Sparrow Hawk, or least Hawk
- § Brown Eagle
- § Large Brown Hawk
- § Pigeon Hawk
- § Fish Hawk
- § Bird Hawk

KITE HAWK.*

- || Forked Tail Hawk, or Kite
- || Sharp Winged Hawk, of a pale, sky-blue colour, the tip of the wings black
- || Sharp Winged Hawk, of a dark or dusky blue colour

Bartram's Designation.

STRIX.

- Strix arcticus, corpore toto niveo.
- Strix pythaulus, corpore rufo.
- Strix maximus, corpore niveo.
- Strix bubo? Peck.
- Strix acclamator, corpore griseo.
- { Strix perigrinator, corpore versicolore.
- { Strix aluco. Cutler. Belknap.
- Strix asio, corpore ferruginio.
- Strix passeri. Cutler. Belknap.

VULTUR.

- Vultur aura.
- Vultur sacra.
- Vultur atratus.

FALCO.

- Falco regalis.
- Falco leucocephalus.
- Falco piscatorius.
- Falco Aquilinus, cauda ferruginio.
- Falco gallinarius.
- Falco pularius.
- Falco columbarius.
- Falco niger.
- Falco ranivorus.
- Falco sparverius.
- Falco fulvus. Belknap.
- Falco hudsonius? Belknap.
- Falco subbuteo. Peck.
- Falco haliæetus. Peck.
- Lanius Canadensis. Belknap. Cutler.

MILVUS.

- Falco furcatus.
- Falco glaucus.
- Falco subceruleus.

(*) These arrive in Pennsylvania in the spring, from the south; and after building their nests and rearing their young, return southward in autumn.

(†) These arrive in Pennsylvania in autumn, from the north, where some of them continue during the winter, others continue their journey as far south as Florida. They return northward in the spring, probably to breed and rear their young.

(‡) These arrive in the spring, in Carolina and Florida, from the south; breed and rear their young, and return again to the south at the approach of winter. These never migrate so far north as Pennsylvania.

(||) These are natives of Carolina, Georgia and Florida; where they breed and continue the year round.

(§) These breed and continue the year round in Pennsylvania.

(§) These are found in New-England.

* Kite hawks are characterized by having long sharp-pointed wings; being of swift flight; sailing without flapping their wings; having long, light bodies, and feeding out of their claws on the wing.

Popular Names.

- || Parrot of Carolina, or Parrakeet
The CROW kind.
- * The Raven
- || Great Sea-side Crow or Rook
- ¶ Common Crow
- § Royston Crow
- ¶ Blue Jay
- || Little Jay of Florida
- ¶ Purple Jackdaw or Crow Blackbird
- * Lesser Purple Jackdaw
- * Cuckow of Carolina
- Whet Saw

WOODPECKERS.

- || Greatest Crested Woodpecker, having }
a white back
- * Great Red Crested, Black Woodpecker
- * Red Headed Woodpecker
- * Gold Winged Woodpecker
- ¶ Red Bellied Woodpecker
- ¶ Least Spotted Woodpecker
- ¶ Hairy, Speckled and Crested Wood- }
pecker
- ¶ Yellow Bellied Woodpecker
- § Swallow Woodpecker
- § Speckled Woodpecker
- ¶ Nuthatch
- † Small Nuthatch
- † Little, Brown variegated Creeper
- * Pine Creeper
- * Blue and White, pied Creeper
- * Great Crested King Fisher
- * Humming Bird
- * Little Grey Butcher Bird of Pennsylvania
- * Little Black Capped Butcher
- * King Bird
- * Pewit, or Black Cap Fly Catcher
- * Great Crested, Yellow Bellied Fly }
Catcher
- * Lesser Pewit, or Brown and Greenish }
Fly Catcher
- * Little Olive-coloured Fly Catcher
- * Little Domestic Fly Catcher, or Green }
Wren
- * Red Eyed Fly Catcher
- * Turtle Dove of Carolina
- || Ground Dove
- † Wild Pigeon

Bartram's Designation.

- Pitticus Caroliniensis.
- CORVUS.
- Corvus carnivorus.
- Corvus maritimus.
- Corvus frugivorus.
- Corvus cornix. Cutler.
- Corvus cristatus, pica glandaria.
- Corvus Floridanus, pica glandaria minor.
- Gracula quiscal.
- Gracula purpurea.
- Cuculus Caroliniensis.
- Cuculus——Carver.
- PICUS.
- Picus principalis.
- Picus pileatus.
- Picus erythrocephalus.
- Picus auratus.
- Picus Carolinus.
- Picus pubescens.
- Picus villosus.
- Picus varius.
- Picus hirundinaceus. Cutler.
- Picus maculosus. Cutler.
- Sitta capite nigro. Catesby.
- Sitta capite fulco. Catesby.
- Certhia rufa.
- Certhia pinus.
- Certhia picta.
- Alcedo alcyon.
- Trochylus colubris.
- Lanius griseus.
- Lanius garrulus.
- Lanius tyrannus.
- Muscicapa nunciola.
- Muscicapa cristata.
- Muscicapa rapax.
- Muscicapa subviridis.
- Muscicapa cantacrix.
- Muscicapa sylvicola.
- Columba Caroliniensis.
- Columba passerina.
- Columba migratoria.

*Popular Names.**Bartram's Designation.*

- * Great Meadow Lark
- † Sky Lark
- † Little Brown Lark
- Red Winged Starling—Marsh Black Bird,
or Red Winged Black Bird
- ¶ Robin Red Breast. Field Fare.
- * Fox coloured Thrush
- * Mocking Bird
- * Wood Thrush
- * Least Golden Crown Thrush
- § Cross Bill
- § Cherry Bird
- * Baltimore Bird, or Hang Nest
- * Goldfinch, or Icterus Minor
- * Sand Hill Red Bird of Carolina
- * Summer Red Bird
- * Yellow Breasted Chat
- * Cat Bird, or Chicken Bird
- ¶ Crown Bird, or Cedar Bird

- Alauda magna.
- Alauda campestris, gutture flavo.
- Alauda migratoria, corpore toto ferruginio.
- Sturnus niger alis superne rubentibus.
Catesby.
- Turdus migratorius.
- Turdus rufus.
- Turdus polyglottos.
- Turdus melodes.
- Turdus minimus, vertice aurio.
- Loxia curvi rostra? Belknap.
- Ampelis garrulus. Cutler.
- Oriolus Baltimore.
- Oriolus spurius.
- Merula flammula.
- Merula Marilandica.
- Garrulus australis.
- { Lucar lividus, apice nigra.
- { Muscicapa vertice nigro. Catesby.
- Ampelis garrulus.

GRANIVOROUS TRIBES.

- ¶ Wild Turkey
- ¶ Pheasant of Pennsylvania, or Partridge of New England. }
- ¶ Mountain Cock, or Grouse Ptarmigan. }
- (Mitchill.)
- ¶ Quail or Partridge
- ¶ Red Bird. Virginia Nightingale
- † Cross Beak
- * Blue Cross Beak
- * Rice Bird. * Boblincoln
- † Blue or Slate coloured Rice Bird
- * Pied Rice Bird *
- † Painted Finch, or Nonpareil
- § Red Linnet
- * Blue Linnet
- ¶ Goldfinch. Yellow Bird (Cutler.) or }
- Lettuce Bird }
- † Lesser Goldfinch
- † Least Finch
- * Towhe Bird, Pewee, Cheeweeh

- { Meleagris Americanus.
- { Gallopavo sylvestris. Catesby.
- Tetrao tympanus.
- Tetrao lagopus.
- Tetrao minor, f. coturnix.
- Loxia cardinalis.
- Loxia rostro forficato.
- Loxia caerulea.
- Emberiza oryzivora.
- Emberiza livida.
- Emberiza varia.
- Linaria ciris.
- Tanagra rubra.
- Linaria cyanea.
- { Carduelus Americanus.
- { Fringilla tristis. Linn.
- Carduelus pinus.
- Carduelus pusillus.
- { Fringilla erythrophthalma.
- { Passer nigris oculis rubris. Catesby.

* The rice bird and pied rice bird are generally supposed to be male and female of the same species; the pied rice bird the male, and the other, the female. Called in New England boblincoln, conquedle; and by some, Old England blackbird.

*Popular Names.**Bartram's Designation.*

† Purple Finch	<i>Fringilla purpurea.</i>
§ Spring Bird	<i>Fringilla.</i> Cutler.
† Hemp Bird	<i>Fringilla canabina.</i>
§ Winter Sparrow	<i>Fringilla grisea.</i> Cutler.
† Red, Fox-coloured, Ground or Hedge } Sparrow	<i>Fringilla rufa.</i>
† Large, Brown, White-throated Sparrow	<i>Fringilla fusca.</i>
* Little House Sparrow, or Chipping Bird	<i>Passer domesticus</i>
* Reed Sparrow	<i>Passer palustris.</i>
* Little Field Sparrow	<i>Passer agrestis.</i>
† Snow Bird	<i>Passer nivalis.</i>
* May Bird	<i>Calandra pratenfis.</i>
* Red-winged Starling, or Corn Thief	<i>Sturnus predatorius.</i>
* Cowpen Bird	{ <i>Sturnus fercorarius.</i> <i>Passer fuscus.</i> Catesby.
* Blue Bird	{ <i>Motacilla sialis.</i> <i>Rubicula Americana cærulea.</i> Catesby.
* Water Wagtail	<i>Motacilla fluviatilis.</i>
* House Wren	<i>Motacilla domestica (regulus rufus.)</i>
¶ * Marsh Wren	<i>Motacilla palustris (regulus minor.)</i>
* Great Wren of Carolina—Body dark } brown, throat and breast, pale clay } colour	<i>Motacilla Caroliniana (regulus magnus.)</i>
§ Grape Bird	<i>Motacilla icterocephala.</i> Cutler.
* Little Bluish Grey Wren	<i>Regulus griseus.</i>
† Golden Crown Wren	<i>Regulus cristatus.</i>
† Ruby Crown Wren (<i>Edwards</i>)	{ <i>Regulus cristatus, Alter vertice rubini</i> <i>coloris.</i>
* Olive-coloured, Yellow-throated Wren	<i>Regulus peregrinus, gutture flavo.</i>
* Red Start	<i>Ruticilla Americana.</i>
* Yellow-hooded Titmouse	<i>Luscinia, f. philomela Americana.</i>
* Bluish Grey Crested Titmouse	<i>Parus cristatus.</i>
¶ Black Cap Titmouse	<i>Parus Europeanus.</i>
* Summer Yellow Bird	<i>Parus luteus.</i>
* Yellow Rump	<i>Parus cedrus, uropygio flavo.</i>
§ Tom Tect	<i>Parus atricapillus.</i> Cutler.
* Various coloured Little Finch Creeper	<i>Parus varius.</i>
* Little Chocolate Breast Titmouse	<i>Parus peregrinus.</i>
* Yellow Red Poll	<i>Parus aureus, vertice rubro.</i>
* Green Black-throated Fly Catcher	<i>Parus viridis, gutture nigro.</i>
* Golden winged Fly Catcher	<i>Parus alis aureis.</i>
* Blue-winged Yellow Bird	<i>Parus aureus alis cæruleis.</i>
* Yellow-throated Creeper	<i>Parus griseus gutture luteo.</i>
* House Swallow, or Chimney Swallow	<i>Hirundo pelagica, cauda aculeata.</i>
* Great Purple Martin	<i>Hirundo purpurea.</i>
* Bank Martin or Swallow	<i>Hirundo riparia, vertice purpurea.</i>
§ White-bellied Martin	<i>Hirundo—</i>

Popular Names.

- § Barn Swallow
 † Great Bat, or Chuckwills widow, or }
 † Goat Sucker
 * Whip-poor-will *
 * Night Hawk

Bartram's Designation.

- Hirundo subis. Cutler.
 Caprimulgus lucifugus.
 { Caprimulgus minor Americanus. Catesby.
 { Caprimulgus Europeanus. Cutler.
 Caprimulgus Americanus. Cutler.

AMPHIBIOUS or AQUATIC BIRDS, or such as obtain their food from, and reside in the water.

The CRANE.

- || Great Whooping Crane
 † Great Savanna Crane

GRUS.

- { Grus clamator, vertice papilloso, corpore
 { niveo, remigibus nigris.
 { Grus pratensis, corpore cinereo, vertice
 { papilloso.

The HERON.

- ¶ Great Bluish Grey Crested Heron
 * Great White River Heron
 § Crane
 * Little White Heron
 § Stork
 † Little Crested Purple, or Blue Heron
 * Grey, White Crested, Heron
 † Speckled Crested Heron, or Crab Catcher
 * Marsh Bittern, or Indian Hen
 * Quaw Bird, or Frog Catcher
 † Little Brownish spotted Bittern
 † Crested Blue Bittern, called Poor Job
 * Green Bittern. Poke. Skouk.
 * Lesser Green Bittern
 * Least Brown and Striped Bittern
 * Spoon Bill; seen as far north as the }
 river Alatomaha }

ARDEA.

- Ardea Herodias.
 Ardea immaculata.
 Ardea Canadensis. Cutler.
 Ardea alba minor.
 Ardea ciconia. Cutler.
 Ardea purpurea cristata.
 Ardea varra cristata.
 Ardea maculata cristata.
 { Ardea migritans.
 { Ardea stellaris Americana. Catesby.
 Ardea clamator, corpore subceruleo.
 Ardea subfusca stillata.
 Ardea violacea.
 { Ardea virescens.
 { Ardea virescens minor.
 Ardea parva.
 Patalea ajaja.

The WOOD PELICAN.

- † Wood Pelican
 † White Curlew
 † Dusky and White Curlew
 || Crying Bird, beautifully speckled
 || Ganet, perhaps little different from }
 the Ibis }
 || White Godwit
 ¶ Great red-breasted Godwit
 ¶ The greater Godwit
 ¶ Red Shark, or Pool Striped
 ¶ Great sea-coast Curlew
 * Lesser field Curlew

TANTALUS.

- Tantalus loculator.
 Tantalus alber.
 Tantalus fuscus.
 Tantalus pictus, (Ephouskyka. Indian.)
 Tantalus Ichthyophagus.
 Numenius, alba varia.
 Numenius pectore rufo.
 Numenius Americana.
 Numenius fluvialis.
 Numenius magnus rufus.
 Numenius minor campestris.

* Bartram considers the whip-poor-will and the night-hawk as the same bird (Caprimulgus Americanus) but they are well known to be different birds.

Popular Names.

- ¶ Sea-side lesser Curlew
- * Great red Woodcock
- Wood Snipe
- * Meadow Snipe
- * Red coot-footed Tring
- * White-throated, coot-footed Tring
- * Black Cap, coot-footed Tring
- ¶ Spotted Tring. Rock bird
- ¶ Little pond Snipe
- ¶ Little brown pool Snipe
- ¶ Little Trings of the sea shore. Sand birds
- Ox Eye
- § Humility
- * Turnstone or Dotrill
- † Wild Swan
- † Canadian Goose
- † Blue-winged Goose
- † Laughing Goose
- † White Brant Goose
- † Great parti-coloured Brant or Grey Goose
- † Great Wild Duck. Duck and Mallard
- † Great Black Duck
- † Bull Neck or Buffaloe Head Quindar
- † Blue Bill
- † Black White-faced Duck
- § Wood Duck
- † Sprigtail Duck
- † Little Brown and White Duck
- † Various coloured Duck, his breast and neck as though ornamented with chains of beads
- † Little Black and White Duck, called }
Butter Back }
- Sea Duck
- Sea Pigeon
- § Old Wife
- † Blue-winged Shoveller
- § Dipper

TEAL.

- * Summer Duck
- † Blue-winged Teal
- † Least Green-winged Teal
- * Whistling Duck
- † Great Fishing Duck
- † Round-crested Duck

Bartram's Designation.

- Numenius cinereus.
- Scolapax Americana rufa.
- Scolapax fedoa. Cutler.
- Scolapax minor arvensis.
- Tringa rufa.
- Tringa cinerea, gutture albo.
- Tringa vertice nigro.
- Tringa maculata.
- Tringa griseus.
- Tringa fusca.
- Tringa parva.
- Tringa fulicaria? Cutler.
- Tringa interpres? Cutler.
- Morinella Americana.
- Cygnus ferus.
- Anser Canadensis.
- Anser aleis cæruleis.
- Anser fuscus maculatus.
- Anser branta, corpore albo, remigibus nigris.
- Anser branta, grisea maculata.
- { Anas fera torquata major, caput et collum
viridi splendentis, dorsum griseo-fuscum,
pectore rufescente, speculum violaceum.
- Anas nigra maxima.
- Acas bucephala.
- Anas subcerulea.
- Anas leucocephala.
- Anas arborea.
- Anas caudacuta.
- Anas rustica.
- Anas principalis, maculata.
- Anas minor picta.
- Anas mollissima. Cutler.
- Anas histrionica? Cutler.
- { Anas Hyemalis. Peck.
Anas strepera? Cutler.
- Anas Americanus lato rostro. Catesby.
- Anas albeola. Cutler.

QUERQUIDULÆ.

- Anas sponfa.
- Anas discors.
- Anas migratoria.
- Anas fistulosa.
- Mergus major pectore rufo.
- Mergus cucullatus.

*Popular Names.**Bartram's Designation.*

- * Eel Crow
- || Great Black Cormorant of Florida, }
having a read beak
- || Snake Bird of Florida
- || Great Black and White Pied Diver or }
Loon
- Large Spotted Loon, or
- + Great Speckled Diver
- Little-eared Brown Dobchick
- Little-crested Brown Dobchick
- § Dobchick or Notail
- § Cream-coloured Sheldrake
- § Red-bellied Sheldrake
- § Pyed Sheldrake
- § Penguin
- § Water Hen
- § Murr
- § Petteril
- + Tropic Bird
- Great White Gull
- Great Grey Gull
- Little White, River Gull
- § Mackarel Gull
- § Fishing Gull
- + Sea Swallow or Noddy
- § Sea Sucker
- || Pintado Bird
- § Thornback
- Shear Water or Razor Bill
- + Frigate or Man of War Bird
- + Booby
- Shag
- Pelican of the Mississipp, whose pouch }
holds 2 or 3 quarts
- || American Sea Pelican

The PLOVER KIND.

- * Kildee or Chattering Plover
- * Great Spotted Plover
- * Little Sea-side Ring-necked Plover
- * Will Willet, or Oyster Catcher
- || Great Blue or Slate-coloured Coot
- § White Head Coot
- § Brown Coot
- * Soree. Brown Rail. Widgcon
- + Little dark Blue Water Rail
- * Greater Brown Rail
- || Blue or Slate-coloured Water Rail of }
Florida

- Colymbus migratorius.
- Colymbus Floridanus
- Colymbus colubrinus, cauda elongata.
- Colymbus musicus.
- Colymbus Glacialis. Peck.
- Colymbus arcticus.
- Colymbus auritus et cornutus.
- Colymbus minor fuscus.
- Colymbus podiceps. Peck.
- Mergus merganser? Cutler.
- Mergus ferrator? Cutler.
- Mergus castor? Cutler.
- Alea impennis. Cutler.
- Alea arctica? Cutler.
- Alea torda. Peck.
- Procellaria pelagica. Peck.
- Phaeton aetherius.
- Larus alber.
- Larus griseus.
- Larus alba minor.
- Larus ridibundus. Cutler.
- Sterna minuta. Cutler.
- Sterna folidia.
- Petromyzon marinus. Peck.
- Petrella pintado.
- Raja fullonica? Peck.
- Rynchops niger.
- Pelicanus aquilus.
- Pelicanus fula.
- Pelicanus graculus. Cutler.

Pelicanus.—

Onocratalus Americanus.

CHARADRIUS.

- Charadrius vociferus.
- Charadrius maculatus.
- Charadrius minor.
- Hematopus osirealegus.
- Fulica Floridana.
- Anas spectabilis. Cutler.
- Anas fusca. Cutler.
- Rallus Virginianus.
- Rallus aquaticus minor.
- Rallus rufus.
- Rallus major subceruleus.

Popular Names.	Bartram's Designation.
§ Peep	Rallus Carolinus. Cutler.
* Flamingo; seen about the point of Florida; rarely as far North as St. Augustine	Phœnicopterus ruber.

Besides these, the following have not been described or classed, unless, under different names, they are contained in the above catalogue.

Sheldrach, or Canvas Back	Mow Bird
Ball Coot	Blue Peter
Water Witch	Water Wagtail
Water Pheasant	Wakon Bird.

The Birds of America, says Catesby, generally exceed those of Europe in the beauty of their plumage, but are much inferior to them in the melody of their notes.

The middle States, including Virginia, appear to be the climates, in North America, where the greatest number and variety of birds of passage celebrate their nuptials and rear their offspring, with which they annually return to more southern regions. Most of our birds are birds of passage from the southward. The eagle, the pheasant, grouse, and partridge of Pennsylvania, several species of woodpeckers, the crow, blue jay, robin, marsh wren, several species of sparrows or snow birds, and the swallow, are perhaps nearly all the land birds that continue the year round to the northward of Virginia.

Very few tribes of birds build or rear their young in the south or maritime parts of Virginia, in Carolina, Georgia, and Florida; yet all those numerous tribes, particularly of the soft-billed kind, which breed in Pennsylvania, pass, in the spring season, through these regions in a few weeks time, making but very short stages by the way; and again, but few of them winter there on their return southwardly.

It is not known how far to the south they continue their rout, during their absence from the northern and middle States.

"The SWAN (*Cygnus ferus*) is the largest of the aquatic tribe of birds which is seen in this country. One of them has been known to weigh 36 lb. and to be 6 feet in length, from the bill to the feet, when stretched. It makes a sound resembling that of a trumpet, both when in the water and on the wing." (Belknap.)

The CANADIAN GOOSE (*Anser Canadensis*) is a bird of passage, and gregarious. The offspring of the Canadian and common goose are mongrels, and reckoned more valuable than either of them singly, but do not propagate.

The PARMIGAN (*Tetrao lagopus*) ordinarily inhabits the colder climates about Hudson's Bay, but is sometimes driven, through want of food, to the more southern latitudes. In the winter of 1788 these birds were taken plentifully about Quebec. Whenever the winter of the Arctic region sets in with rain, so as to cover the branches and leaves of trees with a glaze of ice, they are deprived of their food, and obliged to fly to the south, to a milder climate, where it can be procured. Hence they frequently visit the United States. Their feathers are mostly white, covered with down quite to the nails, and their flesh black, and of an exquisite relish.

Probably this is a different bird from Bartram's Mountain Cock or Grouse, though both have the same Linnæan name.

The QUAIL OR PARTRIDGE (*Tetrao minor*, *f. coturnix*) This bird is the Quail of New England, and the Partridge of the southern States; but is properly neither. It is a bird peculiar

peculiar to America. The *Partridge* of New England (*Tetrao tympanus*) is the *Pheasant* of Pennsylvania, but is miscalled in both places. It is a species of the *Grouse*. Neither the *Pheasant*, *Partridge*, or *Quail*, are found in America.

CUCKOW (*Cuculus Caroliniensis*.) These birds are said not to pair, like the rest of the feathered tribes. When the female appears on the wing she is often attended by two or three males. Unlike all other birds, she does not build a nest of her own, but takes the opportunity, while the Hedge Sparrow (probably they make use of other nests) is laying her eggs, to deposite her egg among the rest, leaving the future care of it entirely to the hedge sparrow. The cuckow's egg requires no longer incubation than her own. When the hedge sparrow has sat her usual time, and disengaged the young cuckow and some of her own offspring from their shells, the young cuckow, astonishing as it may seem, immediately sets about clearing the nest of the young sparrows, and the remaining unhatched eggs, and with surprizing expertness soon accomplishes the business, and remains sole possessor of the nest, and the only object of the sparrow's future care.*

The **WAKON BIRD**, which probably is of the same species with the bird of Paradise, receives its name from the ideas the Indians have of its superior excellence; the Wakon Bird being in their language the bird of the Great Spirit. It is nearly the size of a swallow, of a brown colour, shaded about the neck with a bright green. The wings are of a darker brown than the body. Its tail is composed of four or five feathers, which are three times as long as its body, and which are beautifully shaded with green and purple. It carries this fine length of plumage in the same manner as the peacock does his, but it is not known whether, like him, it ever raises it to an erect position.

The **WHETSAW** is of the cuckow kind, being, like that, a solitary bird, and scarcely ever seen. In the summer months it is heard in the groves, where it makes a noise like the filing of a saw, from which circumstance it has received its name.—*Carver*.

The **HUMMING BIRD** (*Trochilus colubris*) is the smallest of all the feathered inhabitants of the air. Its plumage surpasses description. On its head is a small tuft of jetty black; its breast is red; its belly white; its back, wings, and tail of the finest pale green; small specks of gold are scattered over it with inexpressible grace: and to crown the whole, an almost imperceptible down softens the several colours, and produces the most pleasing shades.

AMPHIBIOUS REPTILES.] Among these are the mud tortoise or turtle (*Testudo denticulata*.) Speckled land tortoise (*Testudo Carolina*.) Great soft-shelled tortoise of Florida (*Testudo nasa cylindracea elongato, truncato*. Bartram.) When full grown it weighs from 30 to 40 pounds, extremely fat and delicious food.—Great land tortoise, called gopher, its upper shell is about 18 inches long, and from 10 to 12 broad.—Found south of Savanna River.

Two species of fresh water tortoises inhabit the tide water rivers in the southern States, one is large, weighing from 10 to 12 pounds; the back shell nearly of an oval form; the other species small; but both are esteemed delicious food.

Of the frog kind (*Rana*) are many species. The toad (*Rana bufo*?) several species, the red, brown, and black. The former are the largest; the latter the smallest. Pond frog (*Rana ocellata*.) Green fountain frog (*Rana esculanta*.) Tree frog (*Rana muculata*.) Bull frog (*Rana boans*.) Besides these are the dusky brown, spotted frog of Carolina, 8 or 9 inches long from the nose to the extremity of the toes; their voice resembles the grunting of

* American Museum, for Jan. 1792, p. 35. Extracted from the Philos. Transactions of the Royal Society, London.

a swine. The bell frog, so called because their voice is fancied to be exactly like that of a loud cow bell. A beautiful green frog, whose noise is like the barking of little dogs, or the yelping of puppies. A less green frog, whose notes resemble those of young chickens.--Little grey-speckled frog, which makes a noise like the striking of two pebbles together under the surface of the water. There is yet an extremely diminutive species of frogs, called by some Savannah crickets, whose notes are not unlike the chattering of young birds or crickets. They are found in great multitudes after plentiful rains.

Of lizards (*Lacertæ*) we have also many species. The alligator, or American crocodile, is a very large, ugly, terrible creature, of prodigious strength, activity, and swiftness in the water. They are from 12 to 23 feet in length; their bodies are as large as that of a horse, and are covered with horny plates or scales, said to be impenetrable to a rifle ball, except about their heads and just behind their fore legs, where they are vulnerable; in shape they resemble the lizard. The head of a full-grown alligator is about three feet long, and the mouth opens nearly the same length. The eyes are comparatively small, and the whole head, in the water, appears at a distance like a piece of rotten, floating wood. The upper jaw only moves, and this they raise so as to form a right angle with the lower one. They open their mouths while they lie basking in the sun, on the banks of rivers and creeks, and when filled with flies, musketoes, and other insects, they suddenly let fall their upper jaw with surprising noise, and thus secure their prey. They have two large, strong, conical tusks, as white as ivory, which are not covered with any skin or lips, and which give the animal a frightful appearance. In the spring, which is their season for breeding, they make a most hideous and terrifying roar, resembling the sound of distant thunder. The alligator is an evaporous animal; their nests, which are commonly built on the margin of some creek or river, at the distance of 15 or 20 yards from the water, are in the form of an obtuse cone, about 4 feet high, and 4 or 5 in diameter at their basis. They are constructed with a sort of mortar, made of a mixture of mud, grass, and herbage. First they lay a floor of this composition, on which they deposit a layer of eggs; and upon this a stratum of their mortar, 7 or 8 inches thick; and then another layer of eggs, and in this manner, one stratum upon another, nearly to the top of the nest. They lay from one to two hundred eggs in a nest. These are hatched, it is supposed, by the heat of the sun, assisted, perhaps, by the fermentation of the vegetable mortar in which they are deposited. The female, it is said, carefully watches her own nest of eggs till they are all hatched; she then takes her brood under her care, and leads them about the shores like as a hen does her chickens, and is equally courageous in defending them in time of danger. When she lies basking upon warm banks with her brood around her, the young ones may be heard whining and barking like young puppies. The old feed on the young alligators, till they get so large as that they cannot make a prey of them; so that happily but few of a brood survive the age of a year. They are fond of the flesh of dogs and hogs, which they devour whenever they have an opportunity. Their principal food is fish. In Carolina and Georgia they retire into their dens, which they form by burrowing far under ground, commencing under water and working upwards, and there remain in a torpid state during the winter. Further south, in warmer climates, they are more numerous, and more fierce and ravenous, and will boldly attack a man. In South America, the carrion vulture is the instrument of Providence to destroy multitudes of young alligators, which would otherwise render the country uninhabitable.

Besides the alligator, we have of this species of amphibious reptiles, the brown lizard (*Lacerta punctata*).--Swift (*Lacerta fusciata*?)--Green lizard, or little greenameleon of Carolina, about 6 or 7 inches long; it has a large red gill under its throat, and, like the

the camelion, has the faculty of changing its colour. The striped lizard or scorpion.—Blue-bellied, squamous lizards, several varieties.—Large copper-coloured lizard.—Swift, slender, blue lizard, with a long slender tail, as brittle as that of the glass snake. The two last are rarely seen, but are sometimes found about old log buildings in the southern States.

AMPHIBIOUS SERPENTS.] The characters by which amphibious serpents are distinguished are these, the belly is furnished with scuta, and the tail has both scuta and scales. Of these reptiles, the following are found in the United States :

Rattle Snake	<i>Crotalus horridus.</i>
Yellow Rattle Snake	} <i>Crotali species.</i>
Small Rattle Snake	
Bastard Rattle Snake	} <i>Coluber—</i>
Moccasin Snake	
Grey-spotted Moccasin Snake of Carolina	
Water Viper, with a sharp thorn tail	<i>Coluber punctatus.</i>
Black Viper	<i>Coluber prester.</i>
Brown Viper	<i>Coluber luridus.</i>
White-bodied, Brown-eyed Snake	<i>Coluber atropos.</i>
Black Snake with linear rings	<i>Coluber leberis.</i>
A Snake with 152 scutæ and 135 scutellæ	<i>Coluber dispas.</i>
Bluish-green Snake, with a stretched out triangular snout, or Hognose Snake	<i>Coluber mycterizans.</i>
Copper-bellied Snake	<i>Coluber erythrogaster.</i>
Black Snake	<i>Coluber constrictor.</i>
White Neck Black Snake	<i>Coluber—</i>
Small Brown Adder	<i>Coluber striatulus.</i>
House Adder	<i>Coluber punctatis.</i>
Water Adder	<i>Coluber—</i>
Brown Snake	<i>Coluber fipidon.</i>
Little Brown Bead Snake	<i>Coluber annulatus.</i>
Coach Whip Snake	<i>Coluber flagellum.</i>
Corn Snake	<i>Coluber fulvius.</i>
Green Snake	<i>Coluber æstivus.</i>
Wampum Snake	<i>Coluber fasciatus.</i>
Ribbon Snake	
Pine, Horn, or Bull Snake, with a horny spear in his tail	
Joint Snake	
Garter Snake	
Striped Snake	<i>Anguis eryx ?</i>
Chicken Snake	<i>Anguis maculata ?</i>
Glass Snake	<i>Anguis ventralis.</i>
Brownish-spotted Snake	<i>Anguis reticulata.</i>
Yellowish-white Snake	<i>Anguis lumbricalis.</i>
Hissing Snake	
Ring Snake	
Two headed Snake	

THE RATTLE SNAKE (*Crotalus horridus*) is the largest serpent yet known to exist in America. They are from four to upwards of six feet in length, and from four to six inches in diameter. Formerly, it is said, they were much larger. Their rattles consist of several articulated, crustaceous, or rather horny bags, forming their tails, which, when they move, make a rattling noise, warning people of their approach. It is said, they will not attack a person unless previously provoked. When molested or irritated, they erect their rattles, and by intervals give the warning alarm. If pursued and overtaken, they instantly throw themselves into the spiral coil; their whole body swells through rage, continually rising and falling like a bellows; their beautiful particoloured skin becomes speckled and rough by dilatation; their head and neck are flattened, their cheeks swollen, and their lips constricted, discovering their fatal fangs; their eyes red as burning coals, and their brandishing forked tongues of the colour of the hottest flame, menace a horrid death. They never strike unless sure of their mark. They are supposed to have the power of fascination in an eminent degree; and it is generally believed that they charm birds, rabbits, squirrels, and other animals, in such a manner as that they lose the power of resistance, and flutter and move slowly, but reluctantly, towards the yawning jaws of their devourers, and either creep into their mouths, or lie down and suffer themselves to be taken and swallowed. This dreaded reptile is easily killed. One well-directed stroke on the head or across the back with a stick not larger than a man's thumb, is sufficient to kill the largest; and they are so slow of motion that they cannot make their escape, nor do they attempt it when attacked. Many different remedies for the bite of a rattle-snake have been prescribed and used with different success; the following, received from good authority, is recommended as a cure for the bite of all venomous snakes: "Bind a ligature tight round the leg or thigh, above the part bitten, so as to interrupt the circulation; then open or scarify the wound with a lancet, knife, or flint, and suck the wound or let a friend do it, then rub it with any unctuous matter, either animal or vegetable; or if that cannot be procured, make use of salt. Take care to keep the bowels open and free by drinking sweet oil and milk or cream. If pure honey be at hand apply it to the wound, after opening and sucking it, in preference to any other thing, and eat plentifully of honey and milk."

The bastard rattle-snake is of the nature of the asp or adder of the eastern continent; in form and colour they resemble the rattle-snake; are eight or ten inches long, and very spiteful and venomous. Like the rattle-snake they throw themselves into a coil, swell and flatten their bodies, continually darting out their heads, and seem capable of springing beyond their length.—Found in the southern States.

The moccasin snake is from three to five feet in length, and as thick as a man's leg. When disturbed by an enemy they throw themselves into a coil, and then gradually raise their upper jaw till it falls back, nearly touching the neck, at the same time vibrating their long purple forked tongue, and directing their crooked poisonous fangs towards their enemy. In this attitude the creature has a most terrifying appearance. It is said their bite is incurable; but the probability is, that it is not. Like the rattle-snake they are slow in their motion, and never bite a person unless provoked.—Found in abundance in the swamps and low grounds in the southern States.

The other moccasin snake is about five or six feet long, and as thick as a man's arm, of a pale grey sky-coloured ground, with brown undulatory ringlets. They are said not to be venomous, have no poisonous fangs, are very swift and active, and flee from an enemy.—Found in the southern States, and supposed to be a species of the wampuna

wampum snake of Pennsylvania, if not the same snake, though larger and deeper coloured.

The black snake is of various lengths from three to six feet, all over of a shining black; it is not venomous; is useful in destroying rats, and pursues its prey with wonderful agility. It is said that it will destroy the rattle-snake by twisting round it and whipping it to death. It has been reported also that they have sometimes twined themselves round the bodies of children, squeezing them till they die.—They are found in all the States.

The coach-whip snake is of various and beautiful colours, some parts brown, or chocolate, others black and others white; it is six or seven feet long, and very slender and active; it runs swiftly, and is quite inoffensive; but the Indians imagine that it is able to cut a man in two with a jerk of its tail. Like the black snake, it will run upon its tail, with its head and body erect.

The pine or bull snake, called also the horn snake, is the largest of the serpent kind known in North America, except the rattle-snake, and perhaps exceeds him in length. They are pied, black and white; are inoffensive with respect to mankind, but devour squirrels, rabbits, and every other creature they can take as food. Their tails terminate with a hard horny spur, which they vibrate very quick when disturbed, but they never attempt to strike with it. They have dens in the earth to which they retreat in time of danger.

The glass snake has a very small head; the upper part of its body is of a colour blended brown and green, most regularly and elegantly spotted with yellow. Its skin is very smooth and shining, with small scales, more closely connected than those of other serpents, and of a different structure. A small blow with a stick will separate the body, not only at the place struck, but at two or three other places, the muscles being articulated in a singular manner quite through to the vertebra. They appear earlier in the spring than any other serpent, and are numerous in the sandy woods of the Carolinas and Georgia, and harmless.

The joint snake, if we may credit Carver's account of it, is a great curiosity. Its skin is as hard as parchment, and as smooth as glass. It is beautifully streaked with black and white. It is so stiff, and has so few joints, and those so unyielding, that it can hardly bend itself into the form of a hoop. When it is struck it breaks like a pipe stem; and you may, with a whip, break it from the tail to the bowels into pieces not an inch long, and not produce the least tincture of blood. It is not venomous.

The two headed snake has generally been considered as a monstrous production. I am disposed to believe, however, that it is a distinct species of serpents. I have seen one, and received accounts of three others, found in different parts of the United States. One of these was about eight inches long, and both heads, as to every outward appearance, were equally perfect, and branching out from the neck at an acute angle.

The snakes are not so numerous nor so venomous in the northern as in the southern States. In the latter, however, the inhabitants are furnished with a much greater variety of plants and herbs, which afford immediate relief to persons bitten by these venomous creatures. It is an observation worthy of perpetual and grateful remembrance, that, wherever venomous animals are found, the God of nature has kindly provided sufficient antidotes against their poison.

FISHES.] Fishes form the fourth class of animals in the Linnæan system. Mr. Pennant, in his British Zoology, distributes fish into three divisions, comprehending
fix

six orders. His divisions are, into *Cetaceous*, *Cartilaginous*, and *Bony*. We are not sufficiently informed on this part of our natural history, to arrange the following catalogue of our fishes agreeably to Mr. Pennant's judicious divisions:

CETACEOUS FISH.

The Whale Dolphin Porpoise Grampus Beluga.

CARTILAGINOUS FISH.

Lamprey	Brown-spotted Gar fish	Red-bellied Bream
Skate	Lump fish	Silver or White Bream
Shark	Pipe fish	Yellow Bream
Dog-fish	Golden Bream or Sun fish	Black or Blue Bream
Sturgeon		

BONY FISH.*

Bel	Conger eel	Cat fish
Snake fish	Skipjack	Minow
Haddock	Pout	Week fish
Cod	Horfe Mackarel	King fish
Frost fish	Blue Mackarel	Sole
Pollock	Speckled Mackarel	Mummychog
Small Pollock	Salmon	White fish
Hake	Salmon Trout	Tide black fish
Sculpion	Trout	Rock black fish
Plaice	Smelt	Blue fish (Begallo)
Flounder	Pike or Pickerel	Sheeps head
Hollybut	Atherine	Red drum
Dab	Mullet	Black drum
Red Perch	Herring	Branded drum
White Perch	Carp	Sheeps-head drum
Yellow Perch	Pond fish	Motsbonker
Sea Perch	Toad fish	Shadine
Whiting	Roach	Porfie
Sea Bass	Shad	Dace
Striped Bass	Hardhead	Anchovy
Shiner	Alewife	Flying fish.
Chub	Bret	
Stickleback	Sucker	

The WHALE (*Balaena mysticetus*) is the largest of all animals. In the northern seas some are found ninety feet in length; and in the torrid zone, where they are unmolested, whales have been seen 160 feet in length. The head is greatly disproportioned to the size of the body. In the middle of the head are two orifices, through which they spout water to a great height. The eyes are not larger than those of an ox, and are placed towards the back of the head, for the convenience of seeing both before and behind. They are guarded by eyelids as in quadrupeds; and they appear to be very sharp sighted, and quick of hearing. What is called *whalebone* adheres to the upper jaw, and is formed of thin parallel laminæ; some of the longest are twelve

* Probably some that are placed under this division belong to one or other of the preceding. We are not able accurately to class them.

feet in length: of these there are from 350 to 500 on each side, according to the age of the whale. The tail, which alone it uses to advance itself in the water, is broad and semilunar, and when the fish lies on one side, its blow is tremendous.

In copulation the male and female join, it is asserted, *more humano*; and once in two years feel the accessions of desire. Their fidelity to each other is remarkable. An instance of it is related by Mr. Anderson, as follows—"Some fishers having struck one of two whales, a male and a female, in company, the wounded fish made a long and terrible resistance; it struck down a boat, with two men in it, with a single blow of its tail, by which all went to the bottom. The other still attended its companion and lent it every assistance, till, at last, the fish that was struck, sunk under the number of its wounds, while its faithful associate, disdaining to survive the loss, with great bel-lowing stretched itself upon the dead fish and shared its fate." The whale goes with young nine or ten months, and generally produces one young one, never above two, which are black and about ten feet long. The teats of the female are placed in the lower part of the belly. When she suckles her young she throws herself on one side, on the surface of the water, and the young ones attach themselves to the teats. Nothing can exceed the tenderness and care of the female for her young.

The whale louse, sword fish, and thresher (a species of *squalus*) are mortal enemies to the whale, who itself is an inoffensive animal.

Formerly whales were found in plenty upon the coasts of the United States; at present they are scarce. The principal branch of the whale fishery, in the United States, is carried on from Nantucket. The enterprize of the Nantucket whalers is remarkable. Not satisfied with the scope which the Atlantic Ocean affords them, they have lately proceeded round Cape Horn, and penetrated the great Western Ocean, in pursuit of whales. Capt. Worth has lately returned from a very successful voyage, of which he gives the following account, viz. that he went to the southward from Nantucket, doubled Cape Horn, and then pursued a north westwardly course, till he arrived at the island of Juan Fernandez. That here, where a harpoon was scarcely ever thrown, the whales swim in shoals, and that it is quite a matter of choice which of the company they shall fall upon. That along the coast of Chili, for a considerable distance at sea, no rain falls to incommode the drying of blubber, as happens to the great disadvantage of the whaling business in Hudson's Bay and Davis's Straits; so that they can carry on their business without any of the interruptions common in other places, in consequence of which they can make more advantageous voyages. A cargo worth 6000l. sterling, it is said, has been procured in a fifteen months voyage to this ocean. For the manner of taking the whales, see Part II.

The BELUGA (*Delphinus beluga*) is the 4th and last species of the Dolphin genus. The head is short, nose blunt, eyes and mouth small, in each side of each jaw are nine teeth, short and rather blunt; those of the upper jaw are bent and hollowed, fitted to receive the teeth of the under jaw when the mouth is closed; it has pectoral fins, nearly of an oval form; beneath the skin may be felt the bones of five fingers, which terminate at the edge of the fin in five very sensible projections. This brings it into the next rank, in the order of beings, with the *Manati*, which we have already described under the head of animals.—Found in the northern parts of the American coasts, particularly in the Gulf of St. Lawrence and Hudson's Bay.

The Lamprey frequents most of the rivers in the New England States, especially where the passage is not interrupted by dams. That part of the lamprey which is below the air holes is salted and dried for food. After the spawning season is over, and the young fry have gone down to the sea, the old fishes attach themselves to the

roots and limbs of trees, which have fallen or run into the water, and there perist. A mortification begins at the tail, and proceeds upward to the vital part. Fish of this kind have been found at Plymouth, in New Hampshire, in different stages of putrefaction.*

The amphibious lobster is found in the small brooks and swamps in the back parts of North Carolina. In its head is found the eye-stone.

INSECTS.] The following catalogues of insects and vermes, except some small additions and the annexed descriptions, are taken from Dr. Belknap's History of New Hampshire, vol. iii. p. 180—183.

Horned Beetle
Carolina Beetle
Dunghill Beetle
Apple Beetle
Golden Beetle

Stag Beetle
Fluted Beetle

Water Flea
Fetid Beetle
Lady Fly

Wheat Fly
Weevil
Snouted Weevil

Goat Chaffer

Fire Fly

Skipper

Glow Worm

Cantharides

Water Beetle

Black Beetle

Scarabæus fimfon.
Scarabæus Carolinus.
Scarabæus stercorarius.
Scarabæus horticola?
Scarabæus lanigerus.
Several new species, and others that have not been arranged.
Lucanus cervus.
Lucanus interruptus.
Dermestes lardarius.
Dermestes typographus.
Gyrinus natator.
Silpha vespillo.
Coccinella 2—pustulata.
Several species.
Chrysomela—many species.
Bruchus pisi.
Curculio quercus.
Many species.
Cerambyx coriarius.
Many species.
Lampyrus lucida.
Several species.
Elatér oculatus.
Many species.
Cicindela Carolina.
One or two other species.
Buprestis mariana.
Two or three other species.
Dytiscus piceus.
Dytiscus marginalis.
Dytiscus striatus.
Several other species.
Carabus Americanus.
Numerous species.

* Belknap's Hist. New Hampshire, vol. iii. p. 176.

Blossom Eater		Meloe nigra.
Cockroach		Staphylinus maxillofus.
Grasshopper		Forficula.—Two species.
Cricket		Blatta Americana, (non indigenus.)
Locust	}	Grillus.—Numerous species.
Mole Cricket		Grillus gryllotalpa.
Froghopper	}	Cicada.—Many species.
Balm Cricket		Notanecta.—Several species.
Large and Small	}	Cinex.—Numerous species.
Water Fly		Aphis brassicæ.
Boat Fly		Aphis.—Numerous species.
Bug		Chermes.—Many species.
Louse, on cabbages		Papilio. { Numerous species, and several
Louse, on leaves of trees and plants		{ non-descripts.
Bug, on plants and trees		Sphinx.
Butterfly		Many new species.
Night Flutterer		Palæna.—Numerous species.
Owl Moth		Phalæna wauaria?
Moth, or Miller		Libellula.—Several species.
Apple Moth, or Canker Worm	}	Hemerobius pectinicornis.
Dragon Fly		Several species.
Adder Fly		Cynips.—Several species.
		Tenthredo betulæ.
Oak Apple Fly	}	Vespa.—Many species.
Saw Fly		Aspis.—Several species.
Wasp	}	Formica.—Several species.
Hornet		Musca.—Numerous species.
Bumble Bee		Tabanus.—Several species.
Wild Bee		Culex pipiens.
Ant		Conops calcitrans.
Black Fly		Podura nivalis.
Brown Fly		Phalangium.
Horse Fly		Several species.
Mosquito, or Musketoe		Aranca.—Many species.
Stinging Fly		
Snow Flea		Cancer.—Many species.
Father Long Legs		
Spider	}	
Crab		
Lobster		
Shrimp		
Hermit Crab		
Slender Crab		

King Crab, or Horse Shoe

Monoculus polyphemus.

Monoculus piscinus.

Cray Fish.

Amphibious Lobster.

Monoculus pulex.

Monoculus quadricornis.

V E R M E S.

Sea Clam

Holothuria phantaphus.

Squid

Sepia media.

Sepia loligo.

Sea Lungs

Medusa pilearis.

Star Fish, or Finger Fish

Asterias.—Three or four species.

Sea Egg

Echinus.—Several species.

Barnacle

Lepas anatifera.

Hog Clam

Mya arenaria.

Razor Shell Clam

Solen ensis.

Long Shell Clam

Solen radiatis.

Oyster

Ostrea ———.

Muscle

Mytilus edulis.

Cockle

Nerita littoralis?

Limpets

Patella fusca.

Sand Shell Clam

Sabella granulata.

Sea Anemone

Anemone marina (locomotiva.)

The Wheat Fly, commonly, but improperly, called the Hessian Fly, which has, of late years, proved so destructive to the wheat in various parts of the United States, has generally been supposed to have been imported from Europe. This opinion, however, seems not to be well founded. Count Ginnanni of Ravenna, in a late learned Treatise on the Diseases of Wheat in its growing State between Seed Time and Harvest, has given an account of more than fifty different insects that infest the Italian wheat, and yet our *wheat fly* is not delineated nor described. There is reason, therefore, to doubt its existence in the south of Europe. Sir Joseph Banks said it did not exist in England; nor could he collect any account of it in Germany. This destructive insect is probably a *non-descript*, and peculiar to the United States.*

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* The following interesting information respecting this insect, communicated to the president of the Philadelphia Society for promoting Agriculture, deserves to be made as public as possible, for the benefit of our farmers whose fields are or may hereafter be liable to the ravages of this devouring fly.

Prospect Hill, June 12, 1792. [State of Delaware.]

Dear Sir,

As the wheat fields in this neighbourhood are now suffering from the ravages of the Hessian fly, I have had an opportunity of observing some facts relating to this destructive insect, which, perhaps, if publicly made known, may serve to obviate, or at least to diminish, its pernicious effects.

This fly made its first appearance in this neighbourhood about the 15th of last September. They arrived in prodigious clouds, and immediately deposited their eggs in the wheat, which at that time afforded them a suitable nidus. I discovered, by accurate observation, that the plants, which had then precisely two blades, were selected for this purpose. In the junction of these two blades, immediately at the root of the plant, the eggs were laid, amounting, in some instances, to a dozen and more. As these eggs continued to swell, the compression upon the tender capillary vessels of the plant became more violent, until, at length, all circulation

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The Ink or Cuttle fish is a curiosity. It is furnished with a cyst of black liquor, which is a tolerable substitute for ink. This it emits, when pursued by its enemies. The moment this liquor is emitted, the water becomes like a thick black cloud in the eyes of its pursuer, and it improves this opportunity to make its escape. This cyst of liquor appears designed by Providence solely for the purpose of personal defence, and is certainly a most apt and curious contrivance. The whalermen call these fish, *Squids*, and say that they are eaten in abundance by some species of whales.

POPULATION.] According to the census, taken by order of Congress, in 1790, the number of inhabitants in the United States of America, was three millions nine hundred thirty thousand, nearly. In this number, none of the inhabitants of the territory N. W. of the River Ohio, are included. These added, would undoubtedly have increased the number to 3,950,000, at the period the census was taken. The increase since, on supposition that the inhabitants of the United States double once in twenty years, has been about 200,000: so that now, 1792, there are, probably, 4,150,000 souls in the American United States.

This number is rapidly multiplying by emigrations from Europe, as well as by natural increase. The American republic is composed of almost all nations, languages, characters, and religions, which Europe can furnish; the greater part, however, are descended from the English; and all may, perhaps, be distinguishingly denominated **FEDERAL AMERICANS**.

was intercepted, and these blades were destroyed. Where the soil was thin, I observed, that, with these blades, the plant also perished; but in rich ground, fresh shoots were made from the root of the plant just below the junction of the original blades, and became flourishing plants in the fall, or early in the spring. As the last fall was very dry and mild, many of these eggs were hatched before winter; but I do not imagine the grubs could have arrived at the fly state before the frosts; so that, in all probability, they were destroyed before the spring. Very early, however, in May, the fly appeared in great numbers, which must have been hatched at the close of the winter, or have come from a distance to us. They deposited their eggs immediately in the spring wheat, and that which had been sown late in the fall; and, according to the quality of the soil, their effect has been precisely the same. A piece of yellow-bearded wheat, which I sowed in November, is the only field that I have examined in which there is no appearance of this insect; and I am informed by my neighbours, that this is the case wherever this species of wheat has been sown. I own that I am at a loss to account for this quality in the bearded wheat; the two first blades of which, it should seem, are equally tender as those of any other kind. Its power of resistance may possibly arise chiefly from its being less debilitated by the winter frost, and consequently from being sooner out of the way of the fly early in the spring. At any rate, it certainly admits of being sown later than any other, and thus effectually escapes the fall ravages of the insect. It follows, from what has been observed, that late sowing of the yellow-bearded wheat upon rich land, is the only certain method of preventing the ravages of the fly. If the seed, moreover, be steeped in strong brine, or a decoction of elders, or other nauseous herbs, the farmer's hopes may still be enhanced, and his apprehensions diminished; nay, perhaps, by attending to these particulars, the appearance of this fly among us, so far from injuring, may promote very materially the present state of our agriculture. The predilection to *large*, instead of *rich* fields of wheat, will be gradually done away; the sizes of farms will be diminished—but the number of farmers will be increased, and our country brought much sooner into that state of cultivation, from which human labour will reap the most ample fruits of its exertions. So that, if the prosperity of a country consists principally in the greater returns that the soil can make to human industry, why may not this insect be directed, by kind Providence, to lead us to this point of national opulence?

P. S. Since writing the above, I have renewed my searching among the yellow-bearded wheat sown in November, and cannot find in it any signs of the fly. Pieces of spring-wheat, of oats, and of rye, lying very near it, are all infected; and some common wheat, which is contiguous to it, is nearly destroyed. So that the *spring ravages* of the insect, which have been so severely felt by other kinds of grain, sown even on a very rich soil, have not as yet reached this species of wheat. If other communications to the society should establish the immunity of *this* wheat from the destruction of this insect, they will greatly raise the spirits of the desponding farmers in this quarter.

C. H. W.

June 14, 1792.

It has generally been considered as a fact, that, of the human race, more males than females are born into the world. The proportion commonly fixed on, is as thirteen to twelve. Hence a conclusive argument has been derived against polygamy. The larger number of males has been believed to be a wise appointment of Providence, to balance the destruction of the males in war, by sea, and by other occupations more hazardous to life than the domestic employment of the female sex. The following table, formed from the census of the United States, in which the males and females are numbered in different columns, furnishes a new proof of the truth of the common opinion, as it respects the United States :*

T A B L E.							
		Males.	Females.	Excess.			
Vermont - - - -		44,763	40,505	4,258 †		Males.	
New Hampshire - - -		70,937	70,160	777		do.	
District of Maine ‡							
Massachusetts - - - -		182,742	190,582	7,840		Females.	
Rhode Island - - - -		31,818	32,652	834		do.	
Connecticut - - - -		114,926	117,448	2,522		do.	
New York - - - -		161,822	152,320	9,502		Males.	
New Jersey - - - -		86,667	83,287	3,380		do.	
Pennsylvania - - - -		217,736	206,263	11,373		do.	
Delaware - - - -		23,926	22,384	1,540		do.	
Maryland - - - -		107,254	101,395	5,859		do.	
Virginia - - - -		227,071	215,046	12,025		do.	
Kentucky - - - -		32,211	28,922	3,289		do.	
North Carolina - - -		147,494	140,710	6,784		do.	
South Carolina - - -		73,298	66,880	6,418		do.	
Georgia - - - -		27,147	25,739	1,408		do.	
Territory S. of Ohio - -		16,548	15,365	1,183		do.	

It is remarkable, that the excess in all the States is on the side of males, except in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Connecticut. In these States the females are considerably the most numerous. This difference is obviously to be ascribed to the large migrations from all these States to Vermont, the northern and western parts of New York, the territory N. W. of Ohio, Kentucky, Pennsylvania, and some to almost all the southern States. A great proportion of these migrants were males; and while they have served to increase the proportion of males in the States where they have settled, as is strikingly the case in Vermont and Kentucky, to which the migrations have been most numerous, and where the males are to the females nearly as *ten to nine*, they have served to lessen the proportion of males in the States from whence they emigrated.

The number of slaves, in 1790, in all the States, was 697,697. The increase of this number since, owing to salutary laws, in several of the States, and the humane exer-

* Mr. Bruce, in his Travels, as we shall, in the second part of this work more particularly relate, affirms, that in that tract of country from the Isthmus of Suez to the Straits of Babelmandel, which contains the three Arabias, the proportion is fully *four* women to *one* man.

† In the columns of the census, in which are noted *all other free persons* and *slaves*, the males and females are not distinguished, and are therefore not regarded in this table.

‡ The males and females are not distinguished in the district of Main, in the late census.

tions which have been made in favour of their emancipation, has happily been small, and probably will be less in future.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] Federal Americans, collected together from various countries, of different habits, formed under different governments, have yet to form their national character, or we may rather say, it is in a forming state. They have not yet existed as a nation long enough for us to form an idea of what will be, in its maturity, its prominent features. Judging, however, from its present promising infancy, we are encouraged to hope, that, at some future period, not far distant, it will, in every point of view, be respectable.

Until the revolution, which was accomplished in 1783, Europeans were strangely ignorant of America and its inhabitants. They concluded, that the new world *must* be inferior to the old. The Count de Buffon supposed, that the animals in this country were uniformly less than in Europe, and thence concluded, that, "on this side the Atlantic, there is a tendency in nature to belittle her productions." The Abbe Raynal, in a former edition of his works, supposed this *belittling* tendency, or influence, had its effects on the race of whites transplanted from Europe, and thence had the presumption to assert, that "America had not yet produced one good poet, one able mathematician, one man of genius in a single art or science." Had the Abbe been justly informed respecting Americans, we presume he would not have made an assertion so ungenerous and injurious to their genius and literary character. This assertion drew from Mr. Jefferson the following reply:

"When we shall have existed as a people as long as the Greeks did before they produced a Homer, the Romans a Virgil, the French a Racine and Voltaire, the English a Shakespeare and Milton, should this reproach be still true, we will inquire from what unfriendly causes it has proceeded, that the other countries of Europe and quarters of the earth, shall not have inscribed any name in the roll of poets. In war we have produced a WASHINGTON, whose memory will be adored while liberty shall have votaries, whose name will triumph over time, and will in future ages assume its just station among the most celebrated worthies of the world, when that wretched philosophy shall be forgotten, which would arrange him among the degeneracies of nature. In physics we have produced a FRANKLIN, than whom no one of the present age has made more important discoveries, nor has enriched philosophy with more, or more ingenious solutions of the phenomena of nature. We have supposed Mr. RITTENHOUSE second to no astronomer living: that in genius he must be the first, because he is self-taught. As an artist, he has exhibited as great proofs of mechanical genius as the world has ever produced.—He has not indeed made a world; but he has, by imitation, approached nearer its Maker than any man who has lived from the creation to this day. As in philosophy and war, so in government, in oratory, in painting, in the plastic art, we might shew that America, though but a child of yesterday, has already given hopeful proofs of genius, as well of the nobler kinds, which arouse the best feelings of man, which call him into action, which substantiate his freedom, and conduct him to happiness, as of the subordinate, which serve to amuse him only. We therefore suppose, that this reproach is as unjust as it is unkind; and that, of the geniuses which adorn the present age, America contributes its full share. For comparing it with those countries, where genius is most cultivated, where are the most excellent models for art, and scaffoldings for the attainment of science, as France and England, for instance, we calculate thus: the United States contain three millions of inhabitants, France twenty millions, and the British islands ten. We produce a Washington, a Franklin, a Rittenhouse. France then should have half a dozen in each of these lines,

and Great Britain half that number, equally eminent. It may be true that France has; we are but just becoming acquainted with her, and our acquaintance so far gives us high ideas of the genius of her inhabitants. It would be injuring too many of them to name particularly a Voltaire, a Buffon, the constellation of Encyclopædists, the Abbe Raynal himself, &c. &c. We therefore have reason to believe she can produce her full quota of genius."

The two late important revolutions in America, which have been scarcely exceeded since the memory of man, I mean that of the declaration and establishment of independence, and that of the adoption of a new form of government without bloodshed, have called to historic fame many noble and distinguished characters who might otherwise have slept in oblivion.

But while we exhibit the fair side of the character of Federal Americans, we would not be thought blind to their faults.

An European writer has justly observed, that "if there be an object truly ridiculous in nature, it is an American patriot, signing resolutions of independency with one hand, and with the other brandishing a whip over his affrighted slaves."

Much has been written to shew the injustice and iniquity of enslaving the Africans; so much, as to render it unnecessary here to say any thing on that part of the subject. We cannot, however, forbear introducing a few observations respecting the influence of slavery upon policy, morals, and manners. From calculations on the subject, it has been found, that the expence of maintaining a slave, especially if the purchase money be included, is much greater than that of maintaining a free man: this, however, is disputed by some; but suppose the expence in both cases be equal, it is certain that the labour of the free man, influenced by the powerful motive of gain, is, at least, twice as profitable to the employer as that of the slave. Besides, slavery is the bane of industry. It renders labour, among the whites, not only unfashionable, but disreputable. Industry is the offspring of necessity rather than of choice. Slavery precludes this necessity; and indolence, which strikes at the root of all social and political happiness, is the unhappy consequence. These observations, without adding any thing upon the injustice of the practice, shew that slavery is impolitic.

Its influence on manners and morals is equally pernicious. The negro wenches, in many instances, are nurses to their mistresses children. The infant babe, as soon as it is born, is delivered to its black nurse, and perhaps seldom or never tastes a drop of its mother's milk. The children, by being brought up, and constantly associating with the negroes, too often imbibe their low ideas, and vitiated manners and morals, and contract a *negroish* kind of accent and dialect, which they often carry with them through life.

To these I shall add the observations of a native * of a state which contains a greater number of slaves than any of the others. Although his observations upon the influence of slavery were intended for a particular state, they will apply equally well to all places where this pernicious practice in any considerable degree prevails.

"There must doubtless," he observes, "be an unhappy influence on the manners of our people, produced by the existence of slavery among us. The whole commerce between master and slave is a perpetual exercise of the most boisterous passions, the most unremitting despotism on the one part, and degrading submissions on the other. Our children see this, and learn to imitate it; for man is an imitative animal. This quality is the germ of all education in him. From his cradle to his grave, he is learning to

* Mr. Jefferson.

do what he sees others do. : If a parent could find no motive either in his philanthropy or his self-love, for restraining the intemperance of passion towards his slave, it should always be a sufficient one that his child is present. But generally it is not sufficient. The parent storms, the child looks on, catches the lineaments of wrath, puts on the same airs in the circle of smaller slaves, gives a loose to his worst of passions, and thus nursed, educated, and daily exercised in tyranny, cannot but be stamped by it with odious peculiarities. The man must be a prodigy who can retain his manners and morals undepraved by such circumstances. And with what execration should the statesman be loaded, who, permitting one half of the citizens thus to trample on the rights of the other, transforms those into despots, and these into enemies ; destroys the morals of the one part, and the *amor patriæ* of the other. For if a slave can have a country in this world, it must be any other in preference to that in which he is born to live and labour for another : in which he must lock up the faculties of his nature, contribute as far as depends on his individual endeavours to the evanishment of the human race, or entail his own miserable condition on the endless generations proceeding from him. With the morals of the people, their industry also is destroyed. For in a warm climate, no man will labour for himself who can make another labour for him. This is so true, that of the proprietors of slaves a very small proportion indeed are ever seen to labour. And can the liberties of a nation be thought secure when we have removed their only firm basis, a conviction in the minds of the people that these liberties are the gift of God ? That they are not to be violated but with his wrath ? Indeed I tremble for my country when I reflect that God is just : that his justice cannot sleep for ever : that considering numbers, nature, and natural means only, a revolution of the wheel of fortune, an exchange of situation, is among possible events : that it may become probable by supernatural interference !—The Almighty has no attribute which can take side with us in such a contest. But it is impossible to be temperate and to pursue this subject through the various considerations of policy, of morals, of history, natural and civil. We must be contented to hope they will force their way into every one's mind. I think a change already perceptible, since the origin of the present revolution. The spirit of the master is abating, that of the slave rising from the dust, his condition mollifying, the way I hope preparing, under the auspices of heaven, for a total emancipation, and that this is disposed, in the order of events, to be with the consent of their masters, rather than by their extirpation.

Under the Federal government, from the measures already adopted, we have reason to believe that all slaves in the United States, will in time be emancipated, in a manner most consistent with their own happiness, and the true interest of their proprietors. Whether this will be effected by transporting them back to Africa ; or by colonizing them in some part of our own territory, and extending to them our alliance and protection, until they shall have acquired strength sufficient for their own defence ; or by incorporation with the whites ; or in some other way, remains to be determined.

In the middle and northern States, there are comparatively but few slaves ; and of course there is less difficulty in giving them their freedom. In Massachusetts alone, and we mention it to their distinguished honour, there are none. Societies for the manumission of slaves have been instituted in Philadelphia and New York, and other places, and laws have been enacted, and other measures taken, in the New England States, to accomplish the same purpose. The FRIENDS, (commonly called Quakers) have evinced the propriety of their name, by their goodness in originating, and their vigorous exertions in executing, this truly humane and benevolent design.

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The English Language is universally spoken in the United States, and in it business is transacted, and the records are kept. It is spoken with great purity, and pronounced with propriety in New England, by persons of education; and, excepting some corruptions in pronunciation, by all ranks of people. In the middle and southern States, where they have had a great influx of foreigners, the language, in many instances, is corrupted, especially in pronunciation. Attempts are making to introduce an uniformity of pronunciation throughout the States, which for political, as well as other reasons, it is hoped will meet the approbation and encouragement of all literary and influential characters.

Intermingled with the Americans, are the Dutch, Scotch, Irish, French, Germans, Swedes, and Jews; all these, except the Scotch and Irish, retain, in a greater or less degree, their native language, in which they perform their public worship, converse and transact their business with each other.

The time, however, is anticipated, when all improper distinctions shall be abolished; and when the language, manners, customs, political and religious sentiments of the mixed mass of people who inhabit the United States, shall have become so assimilated, as that all nominal distinctions shall be lost in the general and honourable name of AMERICANS.

GOVERNMENT.] Until the fourth of July, 1776, the present United States were British colonies. On that memorable day, the Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, made a solemn declaration, in which they assigned their reasons for withdrawing their allegiance from the King of Great Britain. Appealing to the Supreme Judge of the world for the rectitude of their intentions, they did, in the name and by the authority of the good people of the colonies, solemnly publish and declare, That these United Colonies were, and of right ought to be, FREE and INDEPENDENT States; that they were absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and Great Britain was, and ought to be, totally dissolved; and that as Free and Independent States, they had full power to levy war, conclude peace, contract alliances, establish commerce, and do all other acts and things which Independent States may of right do. For the support of this declaration, with a firm reliance on the protection of divine Providence, the delegates then in Congress, fifty-five in number, mutually pledged to each other their lives, their fortunes, and their sacred honour.

At the same time they published articles of Confederation and Perpetual Union between the States, in which they took the style of "THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA," and agreed, that each State should retain its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right not expressly delegated to Congress by the confederation. By these articles, the thirteen United States severally entered into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defence, the security of their liberties, and their mutual and general welfare, and bound themselves to assist each other, against all force offered to, or attacks that might be made upon all, or any of them, on account of religion, sovereignty, commerce, or any other pretence whatever. But for the more convenient management of the general interests of the United States, it was determined, that Delegates should be annually appointed, in such manner as the Legislature of each State should direct, to meet in Congress the first Monday in November of every year, with a power reserved to each State to recall its delegates, or any of them, at any time within the year, and to send others in their stead for the remainder of the year. No State was to be represented in Congress by less than two, or more than seven members; and no person could be a delegate for more than three years, in any

any term of six years, nor was any person, being a delegate, capable of holding any office under the United States, for which he, or any other for his benefit, should receive any salary, fees, or emolument of any kind. In determining questions in Congress, each State was to have one vote. Every State was bound to abide by the determinations of Congress in all questions which were submitted to them by the confederation. The articles of confederation were to be invariably observed by every State, and the Union to be perpetual: nor was any alteration at any time hereafter to be made in any of the articles, unless such alterations be agreed to in Congress, and be afterwards confirmed by the legislatures of every State. The articles of confederation were ratified by Congress, July 9th, 1778.

These articles of confederation being found inadequate to the purposes of a federal government, for reasons hereafter mentioned, delegates were chosen in each of the United States, to meet and fix upon the necessary amendments. They accordingly met in convention at Philadelphia, in the summer of 1787, and agreed to propose the following constitution for the consideration of their constituents:

CONSTITUTION.] WE, THE PEOPLE of the United States, in order to form a more perfect union, establish justice, insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defence, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity, do ordain and establish this Constitution for the United States of America.

ARTICLE I.—*Sec.* 1. ALL legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives.

Sec. 2. The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State legislature.

No person shall be a representative who shall not have attained to the age of twenty-five years, and been seven years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State in which he shall be chosen.

Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union, according to their respective numbers, which shall be determined by adding to the whole number of free persons, including those bound to service for a term of years, and excluding Indians not taxed, three fifths of all other persons. The actual enumeration shall be made within three years after the first meeting of the Congress of the United States, and within every subsequent term of ten years, in such manner as they shall by law direct. The number of representatives shall not exceed one for every thirty thousand, but each State shall have at least one representative; and, until such enumeration shall be made, the State of New Hampshire shall be entitled to choose three, Massachusetts eight, Rhode Island and Providence Plantations one, Connecticut five, New York six, New Jersey four, Pennsylvania eight, Delaware one, Maryland six, Virginia ten, North Carolina five, South Carolina five, and Georgia three.

When vacancies happen in the representation from any State, the executive authority thereof shall issue writs of election to fill such vacancies.

The House of Representatives shall choose their Speaker and other officers; and shall have the sole power of impeachment.

Sec. 3. The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two senators from each State, chosen by the legislature thereof, for six years; and each senator shall have one vote.

Immediately after they shall be assembled, in consequence of the first election, they shall be divided as equally as may be into three classes. The seats of the senators of the first class shall be vacated at the expiration of the second year; of the second class at the expiration of the fourth year; and of the third class at the expiration of the sixth year, so that one third may be chosen every second year; and if vacancies happen by resignation, or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until the next meeting of the legislature, which shall then fill such vacancies.

No person shall be a senator who shall not have attained to the age of thirty years, and been nine years a citizen of the United States, and who shall not, when elected, be an inhabitant of that State for which he shall be chosen.

The Vice-President of the United States shall be President of the Senate, but shall have no vote, unless they be equally divided.

The Senate shall choose their other officers, and also a President pro tempore in the absence of the Vice-President, or when he shall exercise the office of President of the United States.

The Senate shall have the sole power to try all impeachments. When sitting for that purpose, they shall be on oath or affirmation. When the President of the United States is tried, the chief justice shall preside: and no person shall be convicted without the concurrence of two thirds of the members present.

Judgement in cases of impeachment shall not extend further than to removal from office, and disqualification to hold and enjoy any office of honour, trust, or profit, under the United States; but the party convicted shall nevertheless be liable and subject to indictment, trial, judgement, and punishment, according to law.

Sec. 4. The times, places, and manner of holding elections for senators and representatives, shall be prescribed in each State by the legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing senators.

The Congress shall assemble at least once in every year, and such meeting shall be on the first Monday in December, unless they shall by law appoint a different day.

Sec. 5. Each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members, and a majority of each shall constitute a quorum to do business; but a smaller number may adjourn from day to day, and may be authorized to compel the attendance of absent members, in such a manner, and under such penalties as each house may provide.

Each house may determine the rules of its proceedings, punish its members for disorderly behaviour, and, with the concurrence of two thirds, expel a member.

Each house shall keep a journal of its proceedings, and from time to time publish the same, excepting such parts as may in their judgement require secrecy; and the yeas and nays of the members of either house on any question shall, at the desire of one fifth of those present, be entered on the journal.

Neither house, during the session of Congress, shall, without the consent of the other, adjourn for more than three days, nor to any other place than that in which the two houses shall be sitting.

Sec. 6. The Senators and Representatives shall receive a compensation for their services, to be ascertained by law, and paid out of the treasury of the United States. They shall, in all cases, except treason, felony, and breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance at the session of their respective houses, and in going

to and returning from the same; and for any speech or debate in either house, they shall not be questioned in any other place.

No senator or representative shall, during the time for which he was elected, be appointed to any civil office under the authority of the United States, which shall have been created, or the emoluments whereof shall have been increased during such time; and no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office.

Sec. 7. All bills for raising revenue shall originate in the House of Representatives; but the Senate may propose or concur with amendments, as on other bills.

Every bill which shall have passed the House of Representatives and the Senate, shall, before it becomes a law, be presented to the President of the United States; if he approve, he shall sign it, but if not, he shall return it, with his objections, to that house in which it shall have originated, who shall enter the objections at large on their journal, and proceed to re-consider it. If, after such re-consideration, two thirds of that house shall agree to pass the bill, it shall be sent, together with the objections, to the other house, by which it shall likewise be re-considered, and if approved by two thirds of that house, it shall become a law. But in all such cases the votes of both houses shall be determined by yeas and nays, and the names of the persons voting for and against the bill shall be entered on the journal of each house respectively. If any bill shall not be returned by the President within ten days, (Sundays excepted) after it shall have been presented to him, the same shall be a law, in like manner as if he had signed it, unless the Congress, by their adjournment, prevent its return, in which case it shall not be a law.

Every order, resolution, or vote, to which the concurrence of the Senate and House of Representatives may be necessary (except on a question of adjournment) shall be presented to the President of the United States; and before the same shall take effect, shall be approved by him, or, being disapproved by him, shall be re-passed by two thirds of the Senate and House of Representatives, according to the rules and limitations prescribed in the case of a bill.

Sec. 8. The Congress shall have power

To lay and collect taxes, duties, imposts, and excises; to pay the debts and provide for the common defence and general welfare of the United States; but all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States;

To borrow money on the credit of the United States;

To regulate commerce with foreign nations, and among the several States, and with the Indian tribes;

To establish an uniform rule of naturalization, and uniform laws on the subject of bankruptcies throughout the United States;

To coin money, regulate the value thereof, and of foreign coin, and fix the standard of weights and measures;

To provide for the punishment of counterfeiting the securities and current coin of the United States;

To establish post offices and post roads;

To promote the progress of science and useful arts, by securing for limited times, to authors and inventors, the exclusive right to their respective writings and discoveries;

To constitute tribunals inferior to the supreme court;

To define and punish piracies and felonies committed on the high seas, and offences against the law of nations;

To declare war, grant letters of marque and reprisal, and make rules concerning captures on land and water;

To raise and support armies, but no appropriation of money to that use shall be for a longer term than two years;

To provide and maintain a navy;

To make rules for the government and regulation of the land and naval forces;

To provide for calling forth the militia to execute the laws of the union, suppress insurrections, and repel invasions;

To provide for organizing, arming, and disciplining the militia, and for governing such part of them as may be employed in the service of the United States, reserving to the States respectively, the appointment of the officers, and the authority of training the militia according to the discipline prescribed by Congress;

To exercise exclusive legislation in all cases whatsoever, over such district (not exceeding ten miles square) as may by cession of particular States, and the acceptance of Congress, become the seat of government of the United States; and to exercise like authority over all places purchased by the consent of the legislature of the State in which the same shall be, for the erection of forts, magazines, arsenals, dock-yards, and other needful buildings:—And

To make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers, and all other powers vested by this constitution in the government of the United States, or in any department or officer thereof.

Sec. 9. The migration or importation of such persons as any of the States now existing shall think proper to admit, shall not be prohibited by the Congress prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, but a tax or duty may be imposed on such importation, not exceeding ten dollars for each person.

The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended, unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.

No bill of attainder or ex post facto law shall be passed.

No capitation, or other direct tax, shall be laid, unless in proportion to the census or enumeration herein before directed to be taken.

No tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State.—No preference shall be given by any regulation of commerce or revenue to the ports of one State over those of another: nor shall vessels bound to or from one State, be obliged to enter, clear, or pay duties in another.

No money shall be drawn from the treasury, but in consequence of appropriations made by law; and a regular statement and account of the receipts and expenditures of all public money shall be published from time to time.

No title of nobility shall be granted by the United States.—And no person holding any office of profit or trust under them, shall, without the consent of Congress, accept of any present, emolument, office, or title of any kind whatever, from any king, prince, or foreign state.

Sec. 10. No State shall enter into any treaty, alliance, or confederation; grant letters of marque and reprisal; coin money; emit bills of credit; make any thing but gold and silver coin a tender in payment of debts; pass any bill of attainder, ex post facto law, or law impairing the obligation of contracts, or grant any title of nobility.

No State shall, without the consent of the Congress, lay any imposts or duties on imports or exports, except what may be absolutely necessary for executing its inspection laws; and the net produce of all duties and imposts, laid by any State on imports or exports,

exports, shall be for the use of the Treasury of the United States; and all such laws shall be subject to the revision and controul of the Congress. No State shall, without the consent of Congress, lay any duty of tonnage, keep troops, or ships of war, in time of peace, enter into any agreement or compact with another State, or with a foreign power, or engage in war, unless actually invaded, or in such imminent danger as will not admit of delay.

ART. II.—*SECT. I.* The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years, and, together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of senators and representatives to which the State may be intitled in the Congress: but no senator or representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector.

The electors shall meet in their respective States, and vote by ballot for two persons, of whom one at least shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves. And they shall make a list of all the persons voted for, and of the number of votes for each; which list they shall sign and certify, and transmit, sealed, to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted. The person having the greatest number of votes shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed; and if there be more than one who have such majority, and have an equal number of votes, then the House of Representatives shall immediately choose by ballot one of them for President; and if no person have a majority, then from the five highest on the list, the said house shall in like manner choose the President. But in choosing the President, the votes shall be taken by States, the representations from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. In every case, after the choice of the President, the person having the greatest number of votes of the electors shall be the Vice-President. But if there should remain two or more who have equal votes, the Senate shall choose from them by ballot the Vice-President.

The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

No person, except a natural-born citizen, or a citizen of the United States at the time of the adoption of this constitution, shall be eligible to the office of President; neither shall any person be eligible to that office who shall not have attained to the age of thirty-five years, and been fourteen years a resident within the United States.

In case of the removal of the President from office, or of his death, resignation, or inability to discharge the powers and duties of the said office, the same shall devolve on the Vice-President, and the Congress may by law provide for the case of removal, death, resignation, or inability, both of the President and Vice-President, declaring what officer shall then act as President, and such officer shall act accordingly, until the disability be removed, or a President shall be elected.

The President shall, at stated times, receive for his services, a compensation, which shall neither be increased or diminished during the period for which he shall have been elected, and he shall not receive within that period any other emolument from the United States, or any of them.

Before he enters on the execution of his office, he shall take the following oath or affirmation :

“ I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully execute the office of President of the United States, and will, to the best of my ability, preserve, protect, and defend the constitution of the United States.”

Seet. 2. The President shall be commander in chief of the army and navy of the United States, and of the militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States ; he may require the opinion, in writing, of the principal officer in each of the executive departments, upon any subject relating to the duties of their respective offices, and he shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons for offences against the United States, except in cases of impeachment.

He shall have power, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, to make treaties, provided two thirds of the senators present concur ; and he shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the supreme court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law. But the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the courts of-law, or in the heads of departments.

The President shall have power to fill up all vacancies that may happen during the recess of the senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session.

Seet. 3. He shall from time to time give to the Congress information of the state of the union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient ; he may, on extraordinary occasions, convene both houses, or either of them, and in case of disagreement between them, with respect to the time of adjournment, he may adjourn them to such time as he shall think proper ; he shall receive ambassadors and other public ministers ; he shall take care that the laws be faithfully executed, and shall commission all the officers of the United States.

Seet. 4. The President, Vice-president, and all civil officers of the United States, shall be removed from office on impeachment for, and conviction of, treason, bribery, or other high crimes and misdemeanors.

ART. III.—*Seet. 1.* The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one supreme court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish. The judges, both of the supreme and inferior courts, shall hold their offices during good behaviour, and shall, at stated times, receive for their services, a compensation, which shall not be diminished during their continuance in office.

Seet. 2. The judicial power shall extend to all cases, in law and equity, arising under this constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made, or which shall be made, under their authority ; to all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls ; to all cases of admiralty and maritime jurisdiction ; to controversies to which the United States shall be a party ; to controversies between two or more States, between a State and citizens of another State, between citizens of different States, between citizens of the same State claiming lands under grants of different

ferent States, and between a State, or the citizens thereof, and foreign states, citizens, or subjects.

In all cases affecting ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, and those in which a State shall be party, the supreme court shall have original jurisdiction. In all the other cases before mentioned, the supreme court shall have appellate jurisdiction, both as to law and fact, with such exceptions, and under such regulations as the Congress shall make.

The trial of all crimes, except in cases of impeachment, shall be by jury; and such trial shall be held in the State where the said crime shall have been committed; but when not committed within any State, the trial shall be at such place or places as the Congress may by law have directed.

Sec. 3. Treason against the United States shall consist only in levying war against them, or in adhering to their enemies, giving them aid and comfort. No person shall be convicted of treason unless on the testimony of two witnesses to the same overt act, or on confession in open court.

The Congress shall have power to declare the punishment of treason, but no attainder of treason shall work corruption of blood, or forfeiture, except during the life of the person attainted.

ART. IV.—*Sec. 1.* Full faith and credit shall be given in each State to the public acts, records, and judicial proceedings of every other State. And the Congress may by general laws prescribe the manner in which such acts, records, and proceedings shall be proved, and the effect thereof.

Sec. 2. The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States.

A person charged in any State with treason, felony, or other crime, who shall flee from justice, and be found in another State, shall, on demand of the executive authority of the State from which he fled, be delivered up, to be removed to the State having jurisdiction of the crime.

No person held to service or labour in one State, under the laws thereof, escaping into another, shall, in consequence of any law or regulation therein, be discharged from such service or labour, but shall be delivered up on claim of the party to whom such service or labour may be due.

Sec. 3. New States may be admitted by the Congress into this union, but no new State shall be formed or erected within the jurisdiction of any other State; nor any State be formed by the junction of two or more States, or parts of States, without the consent of the legislatures of the States concerned as well as of the Congress.

The Congress shall have power to dispose of and make all needful rules and regulations respecting the territory or other property belonging to the United States; and nothing in this constitution shall be so construed as to prejudice any claims of the United States, or of any particular State.

Sec. 4. The United States shall guarantee to every State in this union a republican form of government, and shall protect each of them against invasion; and on application of the legislature, or of the executive (when the legislature cannot be convened) against domestic violence.

ART. V.—The Congress, whenever two thirds of both houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this constitution, or, on the application of the legislatures of two thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which, in either case, shall be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of this constitution, when ratified by the legislatures of three fourths of the several States,

States, or by conventions in three fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress: provided, that no amendment which may be made prior to the year one thousand eight hundred and eight, shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses in the ninth section of the first article; and that no State, without its consent, shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.

ART. VI.—All debts contracted, and engagements entered into before the adoption of this constitution, shall be as valid against the United States under this constitution, as under the confederation.

This constitution, and the laws of the United States which shall be made in pursuance thereof; and all treaties made, or which shall be made, under the authority of the United States, shall be the supreme law of the land; and the judges in every State shall be bound thereby, any thing in the constitution or laws of any State to the contrary notwithstanding.

The Senators and Representatives before mentioned, and the Members of the several State Legislatures, and all Executive and Judicial Officers, both of the United States and of the several States, shall be bound by oath or affirmation to support this constitution; but no religious test shall ever be required as a qualification to any office or public trust under the United States.

ART. VII.—The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

DONE in Convention, by the unanimous consent of the States present, the seventeenth day of September, in the year of our Lord One Thousand Seven Hundred and Eighty-seven, and of the Independence of the United States of America the Twelfth. In Witness whereof, we have hereunto subscribed our names.

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

Signed also by all the Delegates which were present from twelve States.

Attest.

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, Monday, September 17, 1787.

PRESENT,

The States of New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Mr. Hamilton from New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia.

RESOLVED, That the preceding constitution be laid before the United States in Congress assembled, and that it is the opinion of this Convention, that it should afterwards be submitted to a Convention of Delegates, chosen in each State by the people thereof, under the recommendation of its legislature, for their assent and ratification; and that each Convention assenting to, and ratifying the same, should give notice thereof to the United States in Congress assembled.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this Convention, that as soon as the conventions of nine States shall have ratified this constitution, the United States in Congress assembled should fix a day on which electors should be appointed by the States which shall have ratified the same, and a day on which the electors should assemble to vote for the President, and the time and place for commencing proceedings under this Constitution. That after such publication, the electors should be appointed, and the senators and representatives elected: that the electors should meet on the day fixed
for

for the election of the president, and should transmit their votes certified, signed, sealed, and directed, as the constitution requires, to the Secretary of the United States in Congress assembled; that the senators and representatives should convene at the time and place assigned; that the senators should appoint a president of the senate, for the sole purpose of receiving, opening, and counting the votes for president; and, that after he shall be chosen, the Congress, together with the President, should, without delay, proceed to execute this constitution.

By the unanimous order of the Convention,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

WILLIAM JACKSON, *Secretary.*

In CONVENTION, September 17, 1787.

SIR,

WE have now the honour to submit to the consideration of the United States in Congress assembled, that constitution which has appeared to us the most advisable.

The friends of our country have long seen and desired, that the power of making war, peace, and treaties, that of levying money and regulating commerce, and the correspondent executive and judicial authorities, should be fully and effectually vested in the general government of the union; but the impropriety of delegating such extensive trust to one body of men is evident. Hence results the necessity of a different organization.

It is obviously impracticable, in the federal government of these States, to secure all rights of independent sovereignty to each, and yet provide for the interest and safety of all. Individuals entering into society must give up a share of liberty to preserve the rest. The magnitude of the sacrifice must depend as well on situation and circumstance, as on the object to be attained. It is at all times difficult to draw with precision the line between those rights which must be surrendered, and those which may be reserved; and on the present occasion this difficulty was increased by a difference among the several States as to their situation, extent, habits, and particular interests.

In all our deliberations on this subject, we kept steadily in our view, that which appears to us the greatest interest of every true American, the consolidation of our union, in which is involved our prosperity, felicity, safety, perhaps our national existence. This important consideration, seriously and deeply impressed on our minds, led each state in the convention to be less rigid on points of inferior magnitude, than might have been otherwise expected; and thus the constitution, which we now present, is the result of a spirit of amity, and of that mutual deference and concession which the peculiarity of our political situation rendered indispensable.

That it will meet the full and entire approbation of every State is not perhaps to be expected: but each will doubtless consider, that had her interests been alone consulted, the consequences might have been particularly disagreeable or injurious to others: that it is liable to as few exceptions as could reasonably have been expected, we hope and believe: that it may promote the lasting welfare of that country so dear to us all, and secure her freedom and happiness, is our most ardent wish.

With great respect, we have the honour to be, Sir, your Excellency's most obedient, and humble servants,

GEORGE WASHINGTON, *President.*

By unanimous order of the Convention.

His Excellency the President of the Congress.

The conventions of a number of the States having at the time of their adopting the constitution expressed a desire, in order to prevent misconstruction or abuse of its powers, that further declaratory and restrictive clauses should be added: and as extending the ground of public confidence in the government will best ensure the beneficent ends of its institution,

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, two-thirds of both houses concurring, That the following articles be proposed to the legislatures of the several States, as amendments to the constitution of the United States, all or any of which articles, when ratified by three-fourths of the said legislatures, to be valid to all intents and purposes, as part of the said constitution: viz.

Articles in addition to, and amendment of, the constitution of the United States of America, proposed by Congress, and ratified by the legislatures of the several States, pursuant to the fifth article of the original constitution.

ART. I.—After the first enumeration required by the first article of the constitution, there shall be one representative for every thirty thousand, until the number shall amount to one hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall be not less than one hundred representatives, nor less than one representative for every forty thousand persons, until the number of representatives shall amount to two hundred, after which the proportion shall be so regulated by Congress, that there shall not be less than two hundred representatives, nor more than one representative for every fifty thousand persons.

ART. II.—No law varying the compensation for the services of the senators and representatives shall take effect, until an election of representatives shall have intervened.

ART. III.—Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.

ART. IV.—A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free state, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

ART. V.—No soldier shall in time of peace be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner, nor in time of war, but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

ART. VI.—The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

ART. VII.—No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia when in actual service, in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offence to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation.

ART. VIII.—In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and

to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favour, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defence.

ART. IX.—In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact, tried by a jury, shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States, than according to the rules of the common law.

ART. X.—Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

ART. XI.—The enumeration in the constitution, of certain rights, shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people.

ART. XII.—The powers not delegated to the United States by the constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

The following States have ratified all the foregoing articles of amendment to the constitution of the United States, viz. Maryland, North Carolina, South Carolina, New York, Virginia, and Vermont. New Hampshire, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania reject the second article; and Delaware rejects the first article. No official returns, to our knowledge, have been made from the other States.

SOCIETY OF THE CINCINNATI.] This society was instituted immediately on the close of the war in 1783. At their first general meeting at Philadelphia, in May 1784, they altered and amended the original institution, and reduced it to its present form. They denominated themselves "*The Society of the Cincinnati*," from the high veneration they possessed for the character of that illustrious Roman, *Lucius Quintius Cincinnatus*.

The persons who constitute this society, and all the commissioned and brevet officers of the army and navy of the United States, who served three years, and who left the service with reputation; all officers who were in actual service at the conclusion of the war; all the principal staff officers of the continental army; and the officers who have been deranged by the several resolutions of Congress, upon the different reforms of the army.

There are also admitted into this society, the late and present ministers of his most Christian Majesty to the United States; all the generals and colonels of regiments, and legions of the land forces; all the admirals and captains of the navy, ranking as colonels, who have co-operated with the armies of the United States in their exertions for liberty; and such other persons as have been admitted by the respective State meetings.

The motives which originally induced the officers of the American army to form themselves into a society of friends, are summed up in a masterly manner, in their circular letter. "Having," say they, "lived in the strictest habits of amity through the various stages of a war, unparalleled in many of its circumstances; having seen the objects for which we have contended, happily attained; in the moment of triumph and separation, when we were about to act the last pleasing, melancholy scene in our military drama—pleasing, because we were to leave our country possessed of independence and peace—melancholy, because we were to part, perhaps never to meet again; while every breast was penetrated with feelings which can be more easily conceived than described; while every little act of tenderness recurred fresh to the recollection, it was impossible not to wish our friendships should be continued; it was extremely natural to desire they might be perpetuated by our posterity to the remotest

ages. With these impressions, and with such sentiments, we candidly confess we signed the institution.—We know our motives were irreproachable.”

They rest their institution upon the two great pillars of FRIENDSHIP and CHARITY. Their benevolent intentions are, to diffuse comfort and support to any of their unfortunate companions who have seen better days, and have merited a milder fate; to wipe the tear from the eye of the widow, who must have been consigned, with her helpless infants, to indigence and wretchedness, but for this charitable institution; to succour the fatherless; to rescue the female orphan from destruction; and to enable the son to emulate the virtues of the father. “Let us then,” they conclude, “prosecute with ardor what we have instituted in sincerity; let Heaven and our own consciences approve our conduct; let our actions be our best comment on our words; and let us leave a lesson to posterity, THAT THE GLORY OF SOLDIERS CANNOT BE COMPLETED, WITHOUT ACTING WELL THE PART OF CITIZENS.”

The society have an order, (viz.) a Bald Eagle of gold, bearing on its breast the emblems described as follows—

The principal figure is CINCINNATUS; three senators presenting him with a sword and other military ensigns: on a field in the back ground, his wife standing at the door of their cottage; near it a plough and other instruments of husbandry. Round the whole, *omnia reliquit servare rempublicam*. On the reverse, the sun rising, a city with open gates, and vessels entering the port; fame crowning Cincinnatus with a wreath, inscribed, *virtutis præmium*. Below, hands joining, supporting a heart; with the motto, *esto perpetua*. Round the whole, *societas Cincinnatorum, instituta, A. D. 1783*.

AGRICULTURE, COMMERCE, AND MANUFACTURES.] The three important objects of attention in the United States are agriculture, commerce, and manufactures. The richness of the soil, which amply rewards the industrious husbandman; the temperature of the climate, which admits of steady labour; the cheapness of land, which tempts the foreigner from his native home, lead us to fix on agriculture as the present great leading interest of this country. This furnishes outward cargoes not only for all our own ships, but for those also which foreign nations send to our ports; or in other words, it pays for all our importations; it supplies a great part of the clothing of the inhabitants, and food for them and their cattle. What is consumed at home, including the materials for manufacturing, is four or five times the value of what is exported.

The number of people employed in agriculture, is at least three parts in four of the inhabitants of the United States; some say more. It follows of course that they form the body of the militia, who are the bulwark of the nation. The value of their property occupied by agriculture, is many times greater than the property employed in every other way. The settlement of waste lands, the subdivision of farms, and the numerous improvements in husbandry, annually increase the pre-eminence of the agricultural interest. The resources we derive from it, are at all times certain and indispensably necessary: besides, the rural life promotes health, by its active nature; and morality, by keeping people from the luxuries and vices of the populous towns. In short, agriculture is the spring of our commerce, and the parent of our manufactures.

The vast extent of sea-coast, which spreads before these confederated States; the number of excellent harbours and sea-port towns; the numerous creeks and immense bays, which indent the coast; and the rivers, lakes, and canals, which peninsulate the whole country; added to its agricultural advantages and improvements, give this part of the world superior advantages for trade. Our commerce, including our exports,

imports,

imports, shipping, manufactures, and fisheries, may properly be considered as forming one interest. This has been considered as the great object, and the most important interest of the New England States.

Since commerce has ever been considered as the handmaid of agriculture, particularly in this country, where the agricultural interest so greatly predominates; and since neither can flourish without the other, policy and interest point out the necessity of such a system of commercial and agricultural regulations, as will originate and effectually preserve a proper connection and balance between them.

The consumption of fish, oil, whale-bone, and other articles obtained through the fisheries, in the towns and counties that are convenient for navigation, has become much greater than is generally supposed. It is computed that no less than five thousand barrels of mackarel, salmon and pickled codfish are vended annually in the city of Philadelphia: add to them the dried fish, oil, spermaceti candles, whale-bone, &c. and it will be found that a little fleet of sloops and schooners are employed in the business.

The demand for the forementioned articles is proportionably great in the other parts of the union, (especially in Boston and the large commercial towns that lie along the coast north-eastward, which enter largely into the fishing trade) and the vessels employed in transporting them proportionably numerous. The increase of our towns and manufactures will increase the demand for these articles, and of course the number of coasting vessels. In the present state of our navigation, we can be in no doubt of procuring these supplies by means of our own vessels. This will afford encouragement to the business of ship-building, and increase the number of our seamen, who must hereafter form an important part of the defence of our country. Add to these, our prospects from the fur trade of Canada. The vast settlements which are making at Pittsburg, Genesee, and in other parts in the neighbourhood of Canada; the advantages of our inland navigation, by means of the lakes, the northern branches of the Ohio, the Patomak, the Susquehannah and the Hudson, with many other circumstances depending not only on the situation, but likewise on the climate, proximity, &c. must, in a few years, put a large share of this fur trade into our hands, and procure us, at least, our proportionable share of the large profits thence arising, which Canada, since the year 1763, has enjoyed almost exclusively. These advantages, however, are still but in prospect; and must remain so until the British, agreeably to treaty, shall have evacuated the forts at Niagara, the large settlements of the Heights, and that of Michillimakinak. Although the British, by the treaty of peace, are to enjoy with us the portages of the navigation of the lakes, yet, should a dispute arise, it will not be convenient for them to contend with us; for the northern and north-eastern parts of the continent, included in the British limits, are much colder, more mountainous and poorer than the United States, and have no rivers, but such as are full of rapids and falls; consequently, this trade cannot be carried on by the Canadians with the same facility nor advantage as by us. Still they will have left the exclusive right to the communication from Montreal with the High-lands, through the large river of the Ottawas, which flows into the river St. Lawrence at the lake of the Two Mountains, nine miles from that city; but its rapids and falls will render this way, if not impracticable, at least always very expensive and precarious.

The quantity of fur exported from the northern parts of America to Great Britain, have amounted yearly to about forty one thousand pounds sterling, estimated from the freight during the years 1768, 1769, and 1770. The exports of buck-skins amounted to upwards of thirty three thousand pounds. The sales of fur, which take place in
London

London every spring, produced in 1782, four thousand seven hundred pounds. It was a little increased in 1783, and in 1784, it exceeded two hundred and forty five thousand pounds. All this fur is paid for by English manufacturers : and a fourth part of it is worked in England, where its worth is doubled. This valuable trade, which is carried on through Quebec, will a great part of it fall into our hands, as soon as the fortifications, which the British possess in our northern territories, shall be restored to us. To this consideration, rather than to the pretended compassion for the Royalists, may be attributed the delay of that restitution. The period when this restitution *must* be made, the British anticipate with sorrow. Such are some of the commercial resources and prospects of this country.

But for various reasons, the advantages for trade which nature has so liberally given us, have never, till since the establishment of the present government, been properly improved. Before the revolution, Great Britain claimed an exclusive right to the trade of her American colonies. This right, which she inflexibly maintained, enabled her to fix her own price, as well on the articles which she purchased from us, as upon those of her own manufactures exported for our consumption. The carrying trade, too, was preserved almost exclusively in her own hands, which afforded a temptation to the carriers, that was often too powerful to be withstood, to exact exorbitant commissions and freights. Although we will not even hazard a conjecture how much Great Britain enriched herself by this exclusive trade with her colonies, yet this we may say, that by denying us the privilege of carrying our produce to foreign markets, she deprived us of the opportunity of realizing, in their full extent, the advantages for trade which nature has given us.

The late war, which brought about our separation from Great Britain, threw our commercial affairs into great confusion. The powers of the old confederation were unequal to the complete execution of any measures, calculated effectually to recover them from their deranged situation. Through want of power in the old Congress to collect a revenue for the discharge of our foreign and domestic debt, our credit was destroyed, and trade of consequence greatly embarrassed. Each State, in her desultory regulations of trade, regarded her own interest, while that of the union was neglected. And so different were the interests of the several States, that their laws respecting trade often clashed with each other, and were productive of unhappy consequences. The large commercial States had it in their power to oppress their neighbours ; and in some instances this power was directly or indirectly exercised. These impolitic and unjustifiable regulations, formed on the impression of the moment, and proceeding from no uniform or permanent principles, excited unhappy jealousies between the clashing States, and occasioned frequent stagnations in their trade, and in some instances, a secrecy in their commercial policy. But the wise measures which have been adopted by Congress, under our present efficient government, have extricated us almost entirely from these embarrassments, and put a new and pleasing face upon our public affairs. Invested with the adequate powers, Congress have formed a system of commercial regulations, which enable us to meet the opposers of our trade upon their own ground ; a system which has placed our commerce on a respectable, uniform, and intelligible footing, adapted to promote the general interests of the union, with the smallest injury to the individual States.

The following tables, taken from authenticated copies, will give the best idea of the present state of commerce in the United States.

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S T A T E S.	UNITED STATES VESSELS.		UNITED STATES COASTERS.		UNITED STATES FISHERIES.		FRANCE.		GREAT BRITAIN.	
	Tons, 95lbs.	Dol. Cts.	Tons, 95lbs.	Dol. Cts.	Tons, 95lbs.	Dol. Cts.	Tons, 95lbs.	Dol. Cts.	Tons, 95lbs.	Dol. Cts.
New Hampshire	10,839.	650. 34	1,560.	93. 60	620.	37. 74	-	-	1,386.	693.
Massachusetts	96,564. 25	5,822. 08½	45,063. 94	2,767. 56	29,560. 27	1,774. 70½	-	-	22,495. 93	11,251. 21½
Rhode Island	19,196. 70	1,151. 84¾	9,103. 18	546. 25¼	810. 87	48. 65½	-	-	280. 71	149. 37½
Connecticut	19,728. 63	1,183. 72	8,098. 48	487. 70½	913. 32	54. 80	-	-	3,906. 71	1,983. 23½
New York	40,334. 47	2,720. 85	5,725. 47	343. 38	567. 24	34. 3	-	-	35,154. 47	17,579. 56
New Jersey	1,213. 24	72. 79	4,567. 92	274. 34	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pennsylvania	50,327. 64	3,234. 34	3,933. 40	235. 43	-	-	-	-	27,327. 48	13,664. 12
Delaware	4,610. 23	276. 61½	1,187.	71. 22	-	-	-	-	1,4913. 24	956. 62
Maryland	33,375. 11	2,029. 34	7,836. 16	470. 12½	537. 47	32. 25	-	-	18,215. 55	9,107. 78½
Virginia	32,941. 6	1,922. 36½	10,936. 60	638. 77	72. 71	4. 36½	-	-	44,812. 9	22,400. 70
North Carolina	23,962. 75	1,437. 82¼	7,796. 31	438. 56¼	-	436. 79	-	-	13,662. 59	6,831. 31½
South Carolina	22,497. 55	1,349. 75	4,675. 38	280. 77	25.	1. 50	-	-	20,827. 80	10,413. 47
Georgia	7,063. 40	423. 80	733. 20	43. 96	-	-	-	-	16,165. 75	8,082. 88
Total	361,754. 28	22,276. 54½	110,906. 77	6,691. 67½	33,116. 3	1,988. 4½	7,523. 40	3,744. 3	206,208. 62	103,107. 27½

GENERAL ABSTRACT Continued.

STATES.	SPAIN.		PORTUGAL.		UNITED NETHERLANDS.		GERMANY.		HANSE TOWNS.	
	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.
New Hampshire	-	-	162.	81	-	-	-	-	-	-
Massachusetts	-	-	248.	69	121.	65. 50	-	-	-	-
Rhode Island	-	-	-	-	100.	31 50. 26½	-	-	-	-
Connecticut	47.	23. 50	-	-	100.	21 50. 11	-	-	-	-
New York	59. 59	29. 80	-	-	100.	21 50. 11	-	-	-	-
New Jersey	243. 24	121. 62	1,563. 71	781. 85	1,079. 71	539. 85	-	-	-	-
Pennsylvania	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Delaware	2,062. 79	1,025. 90	2,533. 14	1,266. 61	251. 88	125. 98	-	-	-	-
Maryland	-	-	-	-	163.	81. 50	-	-	-	-
Virginia	503.	251. 50	589	294. 50	1,372. 47	686. 25	463.	231. 50	-	-
North Carolina	65.	32. 50	-	-	180.	90.	-	-	-	-
South Carolina	-	-	-	-	73.	36. 50	-	-	-	-
Georgia	1,670. 32	835. 14	56. 21	28. 11	194. 68	97. 36	-	-	2,603.	9 1,301. 50
	102. 53	51. 26	-	-	243. 88	121. 96	-	-	218. 51	109. 28
Total	4,753.	572. 37 1. 22	5,152. 80	2,576. 44	3,890. 54	1,945. 27½	463.	231. 50	2,821. 63	1,410. 78

STATES.	DENMARK.		SWEDEN AND RUSSIA.		TOTAL AMERICAN TONNAGE.		TOTAL FOREIGN TONNAGE.		TOTAL FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC.	
	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.	Tons.	Dol.
New Hampshire	-	-	-	-	13,028	781. 68	1,812	888. 40	14,840	1,670. 8
Massachusetts	531. 16	265. 68	319. 92	160	172,084. 51	103,559. 13	24,131. 42	12,046. 60½	196,215. 93	22,405. 73½
Rhode Island	-	-	-	-	29,110. 80	1,729. 90	516. 45	240. 60	29,627. 30	1,970. 50
Connecticut	-	-	-	-	28,740. 48	1,726. 22½	4,126. 56	2,063. 14½	32,867. 9	3,780. 37
New York	-	-	-	-	45,626. 71	3,098. 26	39,544. 47	19,448. 8	86,171. 23	22,546. 34
New Jersey	-	-	-	-	5,234. 69	302. 94	-	-	5,234. 69	302. 94
Pennsylvania	219.	109. 50	225. 32	112. 67	53,186. 24	3,405. 87	33,586. 71	16,686. 86	86,773	20,002. 73
Delaware	-	-	-	-	5,797. 23	347. 83½	2,076. 24	1,038. 12	7,873. 47	1,385. 95½
Maryland	497.	248. 50	-	-	41,748. 74	2,531. 23½	22,254. 55	10,699. 22½	64,103. 34	13,230. 46½
Virginia	194. 43	97. 25	-	-	42,750. 42	2,565. 50	47,665. 86	22,947. 59	90,416. 33	25,513. 9
North Carolina	-	-	136. 59	68. 31	30,759. 11	1,876. 37	14,309. 7	7,019. 54½	45,068. 18	8,895. 91½
South Carolina	-	-	76. 54	38. 28	27,197. 93	1,632. 2	25,767. 79	12,883. 38	52,965. 77	14,515. 40
Georgia	-	-	-	-	7,796. 60	467. 76	17,122. 45	8,561. 20	24,919. 10	9,028. 96
Total	1,441.	597. 20. 93	758. 47	379. 26	504,061. 76	30,824. 72½	233,013. 82	114,522. 75	737,075. 63	145,347. 47½

ABSTRACT

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, Register's Office, March 9th, 1792.
JOSEPH NOURSE, Register.

ABSTRACT of GOODS, WARES, and MERCHANDIZE, exported from the United States,
from the 1st of October, 1790, to the 30th of September, 1791.

SPECIES OF MERCHANDISE EXPORTED.

	Quantity.		Value.
ASHES, Pot	3,083 ²⁴ / ₁₀₀ tons	Dollars	308,362
Ashes, Pearl	3,197 ⁶⁰ / ₁₀₀ ditto	-	431,676
Apples	12,352 barrels	-	12,352
Bricks	737,764 number	-	2,582
Boats	99	-	2,970
Bellows for smiths	4	-	120
Beer, Ale, and Porter	44,526 gallons	-	8,905. 20
Ditto, bottled	719 dozens	-	1,438
Boots	482 pairs	-	2,892
Boot-legs	17 ditto	-	34
Brimstone	3,280 pounds	-	98
Blacking or Lampblack	8,518 ditto	-	2,850
Bayberries	18 bushels	-	9
Cider	1,694 barrels	-	2,541
Ditto bottled	310 dozens	-	310
Chalk	10 tons	-	180
Cotton	189,316 pounds	-	47,329
Coffee	962,977 ditto	-	144,446. 55
Cocoa	8,322 ditto	-	832. 20
Chocolate	497 boxes	-	3,832
Candles, Myrtle Wax	348 ditto	-	2,088
Wax	185 ditto	-	1,665
Tallow	2,745 ditto	-	13,725
Cables and Cordage	3,533 per 112lb.	-	27,264
Copper Ore	20 ditto	-	300
Pig	216 ditto	-	4,320
Sheet	296 ditto	-	7,992
Manufactured	1,480 pounds	-	493. 33
Coals	3,780 bushels	-	758
Craneberries	720 ditto	-	360
Corks	300 gross	-	45
Corn-fans	1 number	-	16
Canes and Walking-sticks	598 ditto	-	153
Cotton and Wool-cards	25 dozens	-	2,350
CARRIAGES.			
Coaches, Chariots, Phaetons, &c.	85 number	-	12,300
Waggons and Carts	25 ditto	-	1,280
Duck American	478 bolts	-	4,780
Russia	235 ditto	-	2,350
DRUGS and MEDICINES.			
Glauber Salts	1,580 pounds	-	158
Pink, China and Snake Root, &c.	14,900 ditto	-	3,000
Sassafras Bark	34 ¹ / ₄ tons	-	390
Sassafras Wood or Root	34 ¹ / ₄ ditto	-	685
D d	Carried forward	-	1,059,006. 28

THE UNITED STATES.

EARTHEN and STONE WARE.			Brought forward, dollars		1,059,006. 28
Stone	-	55	dozens	-	100
Yellow or Queen's	-	157	crates	-	1,884
Flaxseed	-	58,492	casks	-	327,555. 53
Flax	-	18,600	pounds	-	1,488
Feathers	-	900	ditto	-	420
Flints	-	40,000	number	-	200
FRAMES of Vessels	-	1	-	-	400
Snows	-	6	-	-	300
Boats	-	10	-	-	150
Houses	-	195	-	-	9,750
Windows and Doors	-	31	-	-	46
FURNITURE HOUSE.					
Tables	-	75	-	-	750
Bedsteads	-	18	-	-	180
Desks	-	78	-	-	1,560
Bureaus	-	21	-	-	294
Sophas and Settees	-	59	-	-	834
Clocks	-	8	-	-	640
Clock-cases	-	3	-	-	90
Chests	-	785	-	-	14,100
Chairs, Windsor	-	5,134	-	-	5,134
Chairs, Rush	-	738	-	-	224
FISHERIES.					
Fish dried	-	383,237	quin. per 112lb.	-	958,092.50
Fish pickled	-	57,424	barrels	-	172,272
Oil, Whale	-	447,323	gallons	-	89,464. 60
Oil, Spermaceti	-	134,595	ditto	-	53,838
Candles, ditto	-	4,560	boxes	-	54,720
Whalebone	-	124,829	pounds	-	24,965. 80
Genfang	-	29,208	ditto	-	7,682. 80
Grindstones	-	125	number	-	187. 50
Glass Ware	-	21	crates	-	84
Ditto for Windows	-	92	boxes	-	920
GROCERIES.					
Cassia and Cinnamon	-	1,778	pounds	-	3,389
Cloves	-	900	ditto	-	1,150
Pimento	-	141,701	ditto	-	22,672
Pepper	-	492	ditto	-	246
Brown Sugar	-	73,304	ditto	-	5,864. 32
Loaf Sugar	-	1,157	ditto	-	231. 33
Other Sugars	-	1,200	ditto	-	132
Raisins	-	400	ditto	-	64
GRAIN and PULSE.					
Wheat	-	1,018,339	bushels	-	1,018,339
Rye	-	36,737	ditto	-	19,470. 61
Barley	-	35	ditto	-	23. 33
Indian Corn	-	1,713,241	ditto	-	856,620. 50
Oats	-	116,634	ditto	-	23,326. 80
Buck Wheat	-	14,499	ditto	-	4,784. 67
Peas and Beans	-	165,273	ditto	-	123,954. 75
Horns and Horntips.	-	119,776	number	-	1,348
Hides, raw	-	704	-	-	1,408
Carried forward				-	4,857,667. 32

Brought forward, dollars 4,857,667.32

Hats	-	-	435	-	-	1,305
Honey	-	-	1,740	gallons	-	1,044
Hops	-	-	650	pounds	-	200
Hemp	-	-	1,544	ditto	-	103
Hay	-	-	2,006	tons	-	25,075
IRON WROUGHT.						
Axes	-	-	979	number	-	979
Hoes	-	-	200	-	-	99.96
Drawing Knives	-	-	24	-	-	4
Scythes	-	-	48	-	-	48
Locks and Bolts	-	-	2,000	-	-	600
Shovels	-	-	261	-	-	130.50
Skimmers and Ladles	-	-	15	pair	-	50
Anchors	-	-	175	number	-	5,300
Grappals	-	-	18	-	-	244
Muskets	-	-	160	-	-	800
Cutlasses	-	-	72	-	-	144
Knives and Forks	-	-	240	-	-	10
Chests of Carpenters' Tools	-	-	4	-	-	200
IRON CASTINGS.						
Waggon Boxes	-	-	50	pairs	-	83
Pots, Kettles, and other Castings	-	-	808	number	-	600
Cannon	-	-	37	-	-	1,110
Swivels	-	-	8	-	-	24
Shot for Cannon	-	-	1,000	-	-	150
IRON, the ton						
Pig	-	-	4,178 $\frac{3}{4}$	tons	-	108,647.50
Bar	-	-	349 $\frac{1}{2}$	ditto	-	27,960
Nail Rods	-	-	8	ditto	-	800
Hoops	-	-	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	ditto	-	1,980
Indigo (see note A.)	-	-	497,720	lbs. and sundry casks	-	570,234
Leather, tanned and dressed	-	-	5,424	pounds	-	1,356
Lime	-	-	1,320	bushels	-	198
LEAD, Sheet						
Pig	-	-	45	sheets	-	1,650
Shot	-	-	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	tons	-	1,848
	-	-	6,473	pounds	-	388.38
LIVE STOCK.						
Horned Cattle	-	-	4,627	number	-	84,442.67
Horses	-	-	6,975	-	-	279,000
Mules	-	-	444	-	-	17,760
Sheep	-	-	10,377	-	-	17,640.90
Deer	-	-	4	-	-	16
Hogs	-	-	16,803	-	-	45,368.10
Poultry	-	-	10,217	dozens	-	15,325.50
Merchandise or dry Goods, foreign	-	-	1,439	packages, estimated at	-	120,000
Molasses	-	-	12,721	gallons	-	2,540.20
Millstones	-	-	2	number	-	200
Mustard	-	-	710	pounds	-	390
Madder	-	-	1,034	ditto	-	258.50
Nails	-	-	130,293	ditto	-	19,543.95
Negro Slaves	-	-	24	number	-	3,808

D d 2

Carried forward 6,217,330.48

THE UNITED STATES.

				<i>Brought forward, dols.</i>		6,217,330. 48
Nankeens	-	-	-	7,070	pieces	10,605
Nuts	-	-	-	1,240	busbels	1,240
NAVAL STORES. (see note A.)						
Pitch	-	-	-	3,818	barrels	6,681. 50
Tar	-	-	-	51,044	ditto	76,566
Rosin	-	-	-	228	ditto	570
Turpentine	-	-	-	58,107	ditto	116,214
Spirits of Turpentine	-	-	-	1,172	gallons	586
Oil, Linseed	-	-	-	90	ditto	45
Porcelain or China Ware	-	-	-	1	boxes	24
Powder, Gun	-	-	-	25,854	pounds	1,405. 60
Powder, Hair	-	-	-	1,276	ditto	319
Pomatum	-	-	-	45	ditto	22. 50
Paints	-	-	-	1,520	ditto	304
Pipes	-	-	-	1	box	2
Printing Presses	-	-	-	4	number	200
Plaster of Paris	-	-	-	4	tons	32
PROVISIONS.						
Rice (see note A.)	-	-	-	93,329	tierces	1,136,599. 50
Flour	-	-	-	119,681	barrels	3,408,245. 50
Ship Stuff	-	-	-	6,484	ditto	12,968
Rye Meal	-	-	-	24,062	ditto	60,155
Indian Meal	-	-	-	70,339	ditto	140,678
Buckwheat Meal	-	-	-	422	ditto	1,603. 60
Oat Meal	-	-	-	6	ditto	16
Bread	-	-	-	100,279	ditto	250,697. 50
Beef	-	-	-	62,371	ditto	374,226
Pork	-	-	-	26,635	ditto	266,350
Crackers	-	-	-	15,346	kegs	6,138. 40
Hams and Bacon	-	-	-	295,647	pounds	26,590. 23
Venison and Mutton Hams	-	-	-	600	ditto	120
Cheese	-	-	-	120,901	ditto	8,463. 7
Lard	-	-	-	522,715	ditto	41,817. 20
Butter	-	-	-	16,670	firkins	91,685
Sausages	-	-	-	250	pounds	25
Fresh Beef	-	-	-	62,269	ditto	3,690. 76
Fresh Pork	-	-	-	29,334	ditto	1,760. 4
Carcasses of Mutton	-	-	-	561	number	2,805
Neats Tongues	-	-	-	160	barrels	1,200
Oysters Pickled	-	-	-	1,228	kegs	2,456
Potatoes	-	-	-	22,263	busbels	5,565. 75
Onions	-	-	-	42,420	ditto	21,210
Other Vegetables	-	-	-	fundries	-	1,000
Reeds	-	-	-	15,450	-	77. 50
SPIRITS.						
Rum, American	-	-	-	513,234	gallons	205,293. 60
Rum, West India	-	-	-	4,742	ditto	3,793. 60
Brandy	-	-	-	158	ditto	158
Brandy, Peach	-	-	-	753	ditto	753
Gin	-	-	-	10,252	ditto	8,201. 60
Ditto	-	-	-	3,817	casks	15,268
Ditto	-	-	-	3,039	jugs	509. 75
Cordials	-	-	-	69	casks	207
				<i>Carried forward</i>		12,534,474. 08

Brought forward 12,534,474. 68

SADDLERY.

Saddles, Men's	-	414	number	-	4,968
Bridles	-	402	-	-	450
Coach and other Carriage Harness	-	74	fets	-	1,740
Waggon and Cart Geers	-	8	-	-	50
Shoes, Mens and Womens	-	7,046	pairs	-	6,341. 40
Soap	-	691	boxes	-	2,704
Sago	-	2,382	pounds	-	382. 82
Starch	-	160	ditto	-	90. 60
Snuff	-	15,689	ditto	-	3,137. 80
Steel	-	1,375	bundles	-	7,333. 33
Silk, Raw	-	153	pounds	-	425. 34
Silver, Old	-	103	ounces	-	103
Salt	-	4,208	busbels	-	1,052
Spruce, Essence of	-	94	cases	-	517

SEEDS.

Garden	-	1,060	pounds	-	1,060
Mustard	-	660	-	-	88
Hay	-	60	-	-	8
Cotton	-	109	busbels	-	104. 99

SKINS and FURS.

Morocco	-	132	number of	-	264
Calf in Hair	-	404	ditto	-	321. 60
Deer and Moofe	-	1,063	ditto	-	563
Seals	-	2,672	ditto	-	13,360
Bear, Wolf, and Tyger	-	37	ditto	-	56. 57
Otter	-	100	ditto	-	166. 07
Deer Skins	-	49,011	pounds	-	24,555. 50
Skins and Furs unknown	-	889	caiks and packets	-	132,000
Tobacco [see note A.]	-	101,272	hogsheds	-	3,469,448
Ditto manufactured	-	81,122	pounds	-	12,168. 60
Types	-	3	boxes	-	300
Tallow	-	317,195	pounds	-	28,547. 55
Twine	-	19 $\frac{1}{2}$	per 112lb.	-	441. 86
Towcloth	-	1,850	yards	-	1,233
Toys for Children	-	112 $\frac{1}{2}$	dozens	-	225
Tin	-	9	boxes	-	120
Ditto manufactured	-	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	dozens	-	80
TEAS—Bohea	-	17 $\frac{1}{2}$	chests	-	1,750
Souchong	-	492	ditto	-	24,600
Green	-	178	ditto	-	5,340
Hyson	-	2,235 $\frac{1}{2}$	ditto	-	145,323. 75
Vinegar	-	2,248	gallons	-	562
Varnish	-	60	ditto	-	20

WINES.

Madeira	-	76,466	ditto	-	99,405. 80
Other Wines	-	32,336	ditto	-	24,252
Bottled	-	6	dozens	-	42
WAX, Bees	-	224,538	pounds	-	53,889. 12
Myrtle	-	2,272	ditto	-	272. 64
Whips	-	146	number	-	26

Carried forward 16,602,415. 62

Brought forward, dols. 16,602,425. 62

Wood.				
Staves and Heading	-	29,061,590	number	369,663
Shingles	-	74,205,976	-	133,570
Shook Casks	-	42,032	-	29,422. 40
Casks	-	297	-	297
Laths	-	25,500	-	20. 40
Hoops	-	1,422,155	-	14,221. 55
Hoop-poles	-	3,422	-	27. 60
Mafts	-	405	-	3,645
Bowspirts	-	42	-	420
Booms	-	74	-	148
Spars	-	4,983	-	7,474. 50
Hand Spikes	-	36,714	-	1,529. 75
Pumps	-	80	-	120
Boxes and Brakes	-	56	-	14
Blocks	-	7,040	-	2,000
Oars	-	28,456	-	5,691. 20
Oar Rafters	-	13,080	-	2,616
Trunnels	-	45,905	-	137. 71
Cedar and Oak Knees	-	1,067	-	746. 90
Breast Hooks	-	50	-	100
Carlings	-	13	-	13
Anchor Stocks	-	809	-	404. 50
Cedar Posts	-	10,453	-	297. 50
Oak Boards and Plank	-	963,822	feet	9,638. 22
Pine Boards and Plank	-	27,288,928	ditto	223,733. 56
Other Boards and Plank	-	3,463,673	ditto	34,636. 73
Scantling	-	6,237,496	ditto	31,187. 48
Timber.	{ Oak, Pine, &c.	2,180,137	ditto	21,801. 37
	{ Ditto, ditto	13,775	tons	41,325
	{ Mahogany	5	ditto	22
Lignum Vitæ	-	1,180	per 112lb.	354
Logwood and Nicaragua	-	105½	ditto	105. 50
Mahogany, Logwood, &c.	-	3,251	pieces	2,879. 86
Oak, Pine, &c.	-	38,680	ditto	18,000
Cords of Oak, Pine, Hickory, &c.	-	499	cords	748. 50
Ditto of Oak Bark	-	57	ditto	114
Oak Bark, Ground	-	1,040	hhds.	6,240
Mast Hoops	-	148	dozens	111
Axe Helves	-	149	ditto	74. 50
Truís Hoops	-	15	fets	37. 50
Yokes and Bowes for Oxen	-	197	ditto	295. 50
Lock Stocks	-	4,000	number	60
Worm Tubs	-	6	ditto	30
Wheel Barrows	-	6	ditto	9. 60
Waggon and Cart Wheels	-	95	pairs	300
Spokes and Fellics	-	12,972	number	1,621. 50
Spinning Wheels	-	17	ditto	51
Tubs, Pails, &c.	-	34	dozens	150
Bowls, Dishes, Platters, &c.	-	170	ditto	340

Total dollars, 17,571,551. 45

(A.) Returns for two quarters from Charleston, and from several small ports, are deficient.

THE UNITED STATES.

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SUMMARY OF EXPORTS.

A SUMMARY of the VALUE and DESTINATION of the EXPORTS of the UNITED STATES agreeably to the foregoing abstract.

	Dols.	Cts.
To the dominions of Russia	-	3,570
To the dominions of Sweden	-	21,866. 2
To the dominions of Denmark	-	277,273. 53
To the dominions of the United Netherlands	-	1,634,825. 76
To the dominions of Great Britain	-	7,953,418. 21
To the Imperial ports of the Austrian Netherlands and Germany	-	362,010. 21
To Hamburg, Bremen, and other Hanse towns	-	64,259. 25
To the dominions of France	-	4,298,762. 26
To the dominions of Spain	-	1,301,286. 95
To the dominions of Portugal	-	1,039,696. 47
To the Italian Ports	-	31,726. 90
To Morocco	-	3,660. 50
To the East Indies, generally	-	318,628. 46
To Africa, generally	-	168,477. 92
To the West Indies, generally	-	59,434. 36
To the North West Coast of America	-	3,380
To Europe and the West Indies for a market	-	29,274. 5
Total Dollars	17,571,551. 45	

The exports of the year ending September 31, 1792, amounted in } value to 21,005,568 —

Treasury Department, March 28th, 1792.

TENCH COXE, *Assist. Sec.*

The foregoing tables will serve to give the reader an accurate view of the state of our commerce with foreign nations; of the articles, and the quantity exported of each, and of the amount of duties arising from our imports and tonnage.

In this connection it may be useful to notice the principal restrictions, impositions, and prohibitions sustained by the United States, in their trade with the British dominions, in contrast with those sustained by Great Britain in her trade with the United States; and this is the more necessary, as there are not wanting persons who affirm, that the balance of *favour* is given to the United States, and that Great Britain is so far injured by our deportment, as to justify a retaliation.

The principal facts, relative to the question of reciprocity of commercial regulations, between Great Britain and the United States of America, have, by a gentleman who had access to every necessary information for the purpose, been thrown into the form of a table, as follows:

GREAT BRITAIN

Prohibits American vessels from entering into the ports of several parts of her dominions, viz. the West Indies, Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, Newfoundland, Cape Breton, Hudson's Bay, Honduras Bay, and her East India spice-market.

THE UNITED STATES

Admit British vessels into *all* their ports, subject to a tonnage duty of 44 cents, or 24 sterling pence, more than American vessels, and an addition of one tenth to the amount of the impost accruing on their cargoes.

GREAT BRITAIN.

She imposes double light money on American vessels in most of her ports.

She prohibits the navigating *ad libitum*, of American vessels, by native or other seamen.

She prohibits the employment of American built ships by her own citizens, in many branches of trade, upon any terms.

She charges a duty on American fail cloth, made up in the United States for British ships.

She prohibits the importation of goods from several parts of her dominions into others, in American vessels, upon any terms.

She prohibits the importation of goods into Great Britain, by American vessels, from any other country than the United States.

She prohibits the importation into Great Britain from the United States, by American vessels, of all goods not produced by the United States.

She prohibits the importation of any goods previously brought into the United States, from the said States into Great Britain, even in British vessels.

She prohibits the exportation of several articles from Great Britain to the United States.

She lays duties of various rates upon the exportation of many articles to the United States.

She prohibits the importation of all manufactures from the United States, into her European dominions, and her colonies, unless it be some very simple preparations and decoctions, requisite to her navy, shipping, and manufactures.

She imposes very considerable duties upon some of the *agricultural* productions of the United States, and excludes others by duties equal to their value.

THE UNITED STATES.

They do not impose extra light money on British vessels in any of their ports.

They admit the navigating of British vessels by native or other seamen, *ad libitum*.

They admit the employment of British built ships by their own citizens, in every branch of trade, upon the terms of 44 cents extra per ton, and one tenth extra on the impost arising from their cargoes.

They do not charge a duty on British fail cloth, made up in Great Britain for American ships.

They admit the importation of goods from any part of their dominions into another, in British vessels, on the terms of 44 cents per ton extra on the vessel.

They admit the importation of goods into the United States, in British vessels, from *every* country whatever.

They do not prohibit the importation into the United States from Great Britain, by British vessels, of any goods not produced by Great Britain.

They do not prohibit the importation of any goods previously brought into Great Britain, from that kingdom into the United States, in either British or American bottoms.

They do not prohibit the exportation of any article from the United States to Great Britain.

They do not lay a duty on the exportation of any article whatever to Great Britain.

They do not prohibit the importation of any manufacture whatever from Great Britain.

They impose moderate duties (lower than any other foreign nation by 2, 3, and 4 for one) on the *produce and manufactures* of Great Britain, except in a very few instances, and exclude scarcely any articles by duties equal to their value.

She

GREAT BRITAIN.

She prohibits, for considerable terms of time, some of the principal *agricultural* productions of the United States, and others at all times.

It is understood that by treaty she grants some favours, which are not extended to the United States.

She prohibits the importation of some American articles, in American ships, or any but British ships, into her European dominions.

She does not permit an American citizen to import goods into some of her dominions, and to sell them there, even in British vessels. In other parts of her dominions, she lays an extra tax on him, or his sales.

She imposes heavy duties on certain articles of the produce of the American fisheries, and insupportable duties on others, in some parts of her dominions: and in other parts, she prohibits their importation.

She prohibits the consumption of some American articles, of which she permits the importation.

She prohibits the importation of American articles from foreign countries into the British dominions, even in her own ships.

THE UNITED STATES.

They prohibit none of the agricultural productions of Great Britain or her dominions.

They treat Great Britain as favourably as any nation whatever, as to ships, imports, and exports, and in all other respects.

They do not prohibit the importation of any British article in British vessels, or any but American vessels.

They permit a British citizen to import goods into all their ports, in any vessels, and to sell them there without any extra tax on him, or his sales.

They impose only five per cent. on the produce of the British fisheries (which duty is drawn back on exportation) and admit every article derived from them.

They do not prohibit the consumption of any British article whatever.

They do not prohibit the importation of British articles from foreign countries in any ships.

Besides, there is no country that contributes so much to the support of the navy of Great Britain as the United States, by the employment they give to her ships. From August 1789, to August 1790, no less than 230,000 tons of British vessels cleared from these States; which much exceed the quantity of vessels they employed the same year in the Russian trade. The whole Baltic trade of Great Britain, with all the countries of the various powers that lie within the Sound, important as it is to her, does not fill more. Their trade with Holland, France, Spain, and Portugal, does not altogether employ as many vessels. Their whole fisheries, American colonial trade, and West India trade, do not employ and load more. And how, it may be asked, are the United States requited for thus strengthening the acknowledged bulwark of Great Britain, by annually giving a complete lading to the unequalled quantity of 230,000 tons of her private vessels? The whole of the American vessels, which have arrived in our ports in the same year, from all the countries and places subject to the British crown, amount to no more than 43,580 tons.

Our allies and friends, the French, have been more liberal in their policy. In the *arrêt*, passed in council, December 29, 1787, for encouraging the commerce of France with

with the United States of America, it is ordained, That whale oil and spermaceti, the produce of the fisheries of the United States, brought directly into France in French or American bottoms, shall be subject to a duty only of seven livres ten sols (equal to six shillings and three pence sterling) the barrel of five hundred and twenty weight; and whale fins shall be subject to a duty of only six livres thirteen sols and four deniers (equal to five shillings and six pence halfpenny) the quintal, with ten sols per livre on each of the said duties; which ten sols per livre was to cease on the last day of December 1790.

The other fish oils and dry salted fish, produced and imported as aforesaid, are not liable to pay any other or greater duties, than the most favoured nations are, or shall be subject to in the same case.

Corn, wheat, rye, rice, peas, beans, lentils, flax-seed, and other seeds, flour, trees and shrubs, pot and pearl ashes, skins, and fur of beaver, raw hides, furs and peltry, and timber carried from the United States to France in French or American bottoms, are subject to a duty of one eighth per cent. on their value. Vessels, proved to have been built in the United States, and sold in France, or purchased by Frenchmen, are exempted from duties. Turpentine, tar and pitch, are liable to a duty of two and a half per cent. on their value. Arms may be imported into the United States, in French or American vessels, on paying a duty of one eighth per cent. on their value; and gunpowder duty free, by giving a cautionary bond. Books and papers of all sorts, imported as aforesaid, are to be exempted from all duties, and entitled to a restitution of the fabrication duties on paper and paste board. Permission is given to store all productions and merchandize of the United States, for six months, in all the ports of France open to the commerce of her colonies, subject to a duty only of one eighth per cent. His majesty reserves to himself the power of granting encouragement to favour the exportation of arms, hard ware, jewelry, bonetry, wool, cotton, coarse wollens, small drape-ries, and stuffs of cotton of all sorts, and other merchandize of fabric, which may be sent to the United States.

As to other merchandizes not enumerated in this act, imported and exported in French or American vessels, and with respect to all commercial conventions whatever, his majesty ordained, 'That the citizens of the United States enjoy in France, the same rights, privileges, and exemptions, with the subjects of his majesty; saving what is provided in the ninth article hereof.*

'His late majesty granted to the citizens and inhabitants of the United States all the advantages which are enjoyed, or which may be hereafter enjoyed, by the most favoured nations in his colonies of America: and moreover his majesty ensured to the said citizens and inhabitants of the United States, all the privileges and advantages which his own subjects of France enjoy or shall enjoy in Asia, and in the seas leading thereto, provided always, that their vessels shall have been fitted out and dispatched in some port of the United States.'

MANUFACTURES.] We now come to the subject of our Manufactures; a subject which has lately become in a high degree interesting to the inhabitants of the United

* The article referred to ordains, that 'The admiralty duties on the vessels of the United States entering into, or going out of the ports of France, shall not be levied but conformably with the edict of the month of June last, in the cases therein provided, and with the letters patent of the tenth of January, 1770, for the objects for which no provision shall have been made by the said edict: his majesty reserving to himself moreover, to make known his intentions as to the manner in which the said duties shall be levied, whether in proportion to the tonnage of the vessels, or otherwise, as also to simplify the said duties of the admiralty, and to regulate them as far as shall be possible on the principles of reciprocity, as soon as the orders shall be completed, which were given by his majesty according to the twenty-sixth article of the said act of the month of June last.

States, but which is too copious to be treated at large in a work of this kind.* I shall confine what I have to say in this place, on this article, to a few general observations on the advantages of encouraging manufactures in the United States; and to an enumeration of the articles already manufactured among us, and a specification of those branches which merit or require to be particularly encouraged.

The prevailing disposition among the European nations, and particularly Great Britain, to restrict and embarrass the external trade of the United States, have forced them to serious and salutary reflections on the importance and necessity of enlarging the sphere of their domestic commerce, and creating a more extensive demand at home, for the increasing surplus of their agricultural produce, by adopting measures for increasing the variety and quantity of their manufactures, and consequently the number of manufacturers. This circumstance, and the complete success which has rewarded manufacturing enterprise in some valuable branches, and the promising prospects which attend some less mature essays, have put the matter of expediency of encouraging manufactures in the United States, which was not long since deemed very questionable, beyond a doubt; and they also justify the belief, that the obstacles to the increase of this species of employment among us are less formidable than have been generally imagined. That manufacturing establishments would, in a variety of respects, be advantageous to these States, appears very evident from the following circumstances:—

1. They would occasion a proper division of labour, than which there is scarcely any thing of greater moment in the economy of a nation. The separation of occupations causes each to be carried to much greater perfection than it could possibly acquire, if they were blended; because there would be a saving of time, by avoiding that loss of it which is occasioned by a frequent change from one operation to another of a different nature; and because from a constant and undivided application to a single object, there naturally results a greater skill and dexterity in accomplishing it.

2. Manufacturing establishments would be a means of extending the use of *machinery*; which, as it is an artificial aid to man, and, to all the purposes of labour, an increase of hands and of strength, *without the expence of maintaining the labourer*, is of great importance in the general mass of national industry. The cotton-mill, invented in England within the last twenty years, is a signal illustration of this general idea. In consequence of it, all the different processes for spinning cotton are performed by means of machines, which are put in motion by water, and attended chiefly by women and children; and by a smaller number of persons, in the whole, than are requisite in the ordinary mode of spinning. And the operations of this mill may be continued night and day with convenience and advantage. It is easy to conceive the prodigious effect of such a machine. To this invention is to be attributed, essentially, the immense progress, which has been so suddenly made in Great Britain, in the various fabrics of cotton. The value of labour-saving machines has, in some degree, been

* Mr. Hamilton, Secretary of the Treasury, in his "Report on the Subject of Manufactures," and the Writer (supposed to be Mr. Coxe, Assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury) of "A brief Examination of Lord Sheffield's Observations on the Commerce of the United States," in two supplementary notes on American Manufactures, have given the fullest and most accurate information on this subject. To them the reader is referred, if he wishes for a more particular account of our manufactures than is here given.—They are my principal authorities for what follows.

† But it has been proved by some of the most respectable characters in Manchester, that nothing can be more prejudicial to the health and morals of women and children than night work, which has induced the well disposed to work their factories during the Day only.

known and experienced already among us; and by their general adoption in their most improved state, to the cotton, flaxen, hempen, metal, and part of the woollen and silken branches, to all of which raw materials they apply, the United States might, in a very few years, acquire a desirable degree of independency on British and other foreign manufactures. And as to advantageous situations for the erection of mills, and for the establishment of manufactures in general, no country has more, and few so many as the United States: and we are far from being deficient in ingenious mechanics who are capable, not only of erecting machines already invented, and making improvements upon them, but also of inventing new machines of the most complicated and useful kind.

3. Another advantage resulting from manufacturing establishments is, they would afford employment to classes of people who are either not fully occupied, or wholly idle, and thereby give occasion to the exertion of a greater quantity of industry, even by the *same number* of persons. In general, women and children are rendered more useful, and the latter more early useful, by manufacturing establishments, than they would otherwise be. Of the number employed in the cotton manufactures of Great Britain, it is computed that 4 in 7, nearly, are women and children; of whom the greatest proportion are children; and many of them of a tender age.

4. The establishment of manufactures would greatly increase the inducements which this country, in its present state, holds out to foreigners to come among us, and become citizens. The oppression that is experienced by the people in some parts of Europe, and the distresses that multitudes are brought into by the disturbed state of so many kingdoms, have excited a disposition in many of their valuable citizens, to emigrate to a country where they may enjoy freedom and peace. The effect of multiplying the opportunities of employment to those who emigrate, by manufactural establishments, would probably be an increase of the number and extent of valuable acquisitions to the population, arts, and industry of the country. This sentiment, however, ought to be known, that while we think ourselves justifiable, as it respects the cause of humanity, religion, and policy, in benefiting our country, by opening an asylum for the oppressed and distressed citizens of Europe, we are very far from finding a pleasure in those affecting calamities which render a removal, on their part, desirable.

European manufacturers, listening to the powerful invitations of a better price for their fabrics or their labour—of greater cheapness of provisions and raw materials—of an exemption from the chief part of the taxes, burdens, and restraints, which they endure in the Old World—of freedom from those distresses and embarrassments into which they have been thrown by the disturbances of Europe—of greater personal independence and consequence, under the operations of a more equal government—and of what is far more precious than mere religious toleration, a *perfect equality* of religious privileges—encouraged, I say, by all these powerful inducements, manufacturers would probably flock from Europe to America, to pursue their respective occupations, if they were once made sensible of the advantages they would enjoy, and were inspired with an assurance of encouragement and employment.

Besides, the advantages already enumerated, which would result to these States from the encouragement of manufactures, we may add, that in this way, greater scope would be afforded for the exercise of the various talents and dispositions of men, a more ample field opened for enterprise; which circumstances are the more important, as there seems evidently to be, in the genius of the people of this country, a remarkable aptitude for mechanical inventions and improvements, and a singular spirit of enterprise. The increase of manufactures, also, would be a mean of creating, in some instances

instances a new, and securing in all, a more certain and steady demand for the surplus produce of the soil. This circumstance, as it is a principal mean by which the establishment of manufactures contributes to an augmentation of the produce or revenue of a country, and has an immediate and direct relation to the prosperity of agriculture, is among the most important advantages enumerated.

But there are other considerations which serve to fortify the idea, that the encouragement of manufactures is the interest of all parts of the union. If the northern and middle States should be the principal scenes of such establishments, they would immediately benefit the more southern, by creating a demand for productions, some of which they have in common with the other States, and others of which either are peculiar to them, or more abundant, or of better quality than elsewhere. These productions principally are, timber, flax, hemp, cotton, wool, raw silk, indigo, iron, lead, furs, hides, skins, and coals; of these articles, cotton and indigo are peculiar to the southern States; flax and hemp are, or may be, raised in greater abundance there than in the more northern States; and the wool of Virginia is said to be of a better quality than that of any other State, which is probable, as Virginia embraces the same latitudes of the finest wool countries in Europe. The climate of the south is also better adapted to the production of silk. The extensive cultivation of cotton can hardly be expected, but from the previous establishment of domestic manufactories of the article; and the surest encouragement and vent for the others would result from similar establishments in regard to them.

The most material objection that has been made to the pursuit of manufactures in the United States, is the impracticability of success, arising from scarcity of hands, dearth of labour, and want of capital. The last of these circumstances, want of capital, has no real foundation. With regard to the scarcity of hands, the fact must be applied, with no small qualification, to certain parts of the United States. There are large districts, which may be considered as pretty fully peopled; and which, notwithstanding a continual drain for distant settlements, are thickly interspersed with flourishing and increasing towns.—Connecticut and Massachusetts contain, on an average, as many as 55 inhabitants to every square mile; and the county of Essex, in Massachusetts, will average 135 inhabitants to every square mile. This latter district has already reached the point at which the complaint of scarcity of hands ceases; and the above-mentioned States at large are not far remote from, and are approaching fast towards it: and having, perhaps, fewer attractions to agriculture than some other more southern and temperate parts of the union, they exhibit a proportionably stronger propensity to the pursuit of manufactures, which is exemplified in the maturity which some branches have already attained in these districts.

But there are circumstances which have been already noticed with another view, that materially diminish every where the effect of a scarcity of hands. These circumstances are the great use which may be made of women and children—the vast extension given, by late improvements, to the employment of machines, which, substituting the agency of fire and water, has prodigiously lessened the necessity for manual labour—and lastly, the attraction of foreign emigrants. In all our populous towns there is already a large proportion of ingenious and valuable workmen in different arts and trades, who, by expatriating from Europe, have improved their own condition, and added to the industry and wealth of the United States. It is a natural inference, from the experience we have already had, that as soon as the United States shall present the countenance of a serious prosecution of manufactures—as soon as foreign artists shall be made sensible, that the state of things here affords a moral cer-

tainty.

tainty of employment and encouragement, competent numbers of European workmen will transplant themselves, so as effectually to ensure the success of the design. These circumstances sufficiently obviate the objection which arises from a scarcity of hands.

But, to all the arguments which are brought to evince the impracticability of success, in manufacturing establishments in the United States, it would be a sufficient answer, to refer to the experience of what has been already done. It is certain that several important branches have grown up and flourished, with a rapidity which surprises; affording an encouraging assurance of success in future attempts. Of these the following are the most considerable, viz. Of *Skins*—Tanned and tawed leathers, dressed skins, shoes, boots, and slippers, harness and saddlery of all kinds, portmantiaus and trunks, leather breeches, gloves, muffs and tippets, parchment and glue.—Of *Iron*—Bar and sheet iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots and other household utensils, the steel and iron work of carriages and for ship building, anchors, scale beams and weights, and various tools of artificers, arms of different kinds.—Of *Wood*—Ships, cabinet wares, and turnery, wool and cotton cards, and other machinery for manufactures and husbandry, mathematical instruments, coopers wares of every kind.—Of *Flax and Hemp*—Cables, sail cloth, cordage, twine and packthread.—Of *Clay*—Bricks and coarse tiles, and potters wares.—Ardent spirits and malt liquors.—Writing and printing paper, sheathing and wrapping paper, paste boards, fullers or press papers, and paper hangings.—Hats of fur and wool, and mixtures of both.—Womens stuff and silk shoes.—Refined sugars.—Chocolate.—Oil of animals and seeds, soap, spermaceti and tallow candles—Copper and brass wares, particularly utensils for distillers, sugar refiners and brewers, hand irons and other articles for household use—clocks, philosophical apparatus—Tin wares of almost all kinds for ordinary use—Carriages of all kinds—Snuff, chewing and smoking tobacco—Starch and hair powder—Lampblack and other painters colours—Gunpowder.

Besides the manufacture of these articles, which are carried on as regular trades, and have attained to a considerable degree of maturity, there is a vast scene of household manufacturing, which contributes very largely to the supply of the community. These domestic manufactures are prosecuted as well in the southern, as in the middle and northern States; great quantities of coarse cloths, coatings, serges and flannels, linsley woolseys, hosiery of wool, cotton and thread, coarse fustians, jeans and muslins, checked and striped cotton and linen goods, bedticks, coverlets, and counterpanes, tow linens, coarse shirtings, sheetings, towelling and table linen, and various mixtures of wool and cotton, and of cotton and flax, are made in the household way, and in many instances, to an extent not only sufficient for the supply of the families in which they are made, but for sale, and even in some cases for exportation. It is computed in a number of districts, that two thirds, three fourths, four fifths, and in some places even a greater proportion, of all the cloathing of the inhabitants is made by themselves. In a moral and political view these facts are highly pleasing and interesting.

The above enumeration does not comprehend all the articles that are manufactured as regular trades. The following articles, though manufactured in a less extensive degree, and some of them in less perfection, ought to be added—Gold, silver, pewter, lead, glass and stone wares of many kinds, books in various languages, printing types and presses, bells, combs, buttons, corn fans, ploughs and all other implements of husbandry. Some of these are still in their infancy, as are others not enumerated, but which are attended with favourable appearances. There are other articles also of
very

very great importance, which, though strictly speaking manufactures, are omitted, as being immediately connected with husbandry; such are flour and meal of all kinds, pot and pearl ashes, pitch, tar, turpentine, maple sugar, wine, and the like.

Having pointed out the advantages of encouraging manufactures in the United States, and enumerated the articles manufactured, it remains that we specify some of the articles which merit or require encouragement. In making the selection of objects, five circumstances are entitled to particular attention: the capacity of the country to furnish the raw material—the degree in which the nature of the manufacture admits of a substitute for manual labour in machinery—the faculty of execution—the extensiveness of the uses to which the article can be applied—its subserviency to other interests, particularly the great one of national defence. And of this description, none are more essential in their kinds, or more extensive in their uses, than the manufactures of iron, steel, copper, brass, lead, coal, wood, skins, grain, flax and hemp, cotton, wool, silk, glass, gunpowder, paper, printed books, refined sugars, chocolate, wines, and maple sugar. These are the most important of the several kinds of manufactures, which appear to require, and at the same time to be the most proper for public encouragement, either by bounties on the articles manufactured, duties on imported articles of the same kind, or drawbacks of the duties upon the imported raw materials, according to the nature of the case.

We have mentioned the manufactures of wine and maple sugar, as objects worthy of legislative attention and encouragement in the United States. As to the first, successful experiments have already been made, by some new settlers of French people, on the river Ohio,* which evince the practicability of the manufacture of wines of an excellent quality: and as grapes are the spontaneous production of all the United States, and, by culture, might be raised in any desirable quantity, and in great perfection, this manufacture, with proper legislative encouragement, might be carried on to such an extent, as greatly to diminish, and in time, perhaps, wholly to preclude foreign importations.

The manufacture of maple sugar, though it has for many years been carried on, in the small way, in the eastern States, has but very lately become an object of public attention.—The eastern and middle States furnish a sufficient number of maple trees to supply the United States with the article of sugar; and, it is asserted, of a quality “equal, in the opinion of competent judges, to the best sugars imported from the West India Islands.” A person, whose judgement on this subject is much to be relied on, as well from his experience in the business, as his established character for candor and integrity, has given it as his opinion, “That four active and industrious men, well provided with materials and conveniences proper for carrying on the business, may make, in a common season, which lasts from four to six weeks, 4000lbs. of sugar, that is 1000lbs. to each man.” If such be the amazing product of six weeks labour of an individual, what may be expected from the labours of the many thousands of people who now inhabit, and may hereafter inhabit, the extensive tracts of country which abound with the sugar maple tree? This manufacture is so important and interesting, that it respects the wealth and prosperity of our country, and the cause of humanity, that it deserves the countenance of every good citizen, and even national encouragement. No less than 18 millions of pounds of West India sugars, manufactured by the hands of *slaves*, is annually imported into and consumed in the United States. In proportion as this quantity can be lessened by our own manufacturers,

by

* See page 144.

by the hands of *freemen*, the wealth of the United States will be increased, and the cause of humanity promoted,

MILITARY STRENGTH.] Standing armies are deemed inconsistent with a republican government; we of course have none.* Our military strength lies in a well-disciplined militia. According to the late census, there are in the United States, 814,000 men of 16 years old and upwards, whites. Suppose that the superannuated, the officers of government, and the other classes of people who are excused from military duty, amount to 114,000, there will remain a militia of 700,000 men. Of these a great proportion are well-disciplined, veteran troops. No nation or kingdom in Europe can bring into the field an army of equal numbers, more formidable than can be raised in the United States.

FINANCES.] The Revenue of the United States is raised from duties on the tonnage of vessels entered in the United States, and on imported goods, wares, and merchandize, and from an excise on various articles of consumption. The amount of the duties arising on the tonnage of vessels, for the year commencing October 1st, 1790, and ending September 30th, 1791, amounted to 145,347 dollars. The duties arising on goods, wares, and merchandize, for the same year, amounted to 3,006,722 dollars. The whole amount of the revenue from the excise is not accurately known. In Massachusetts it amounts annually to 200,000 dollars. The old Congress, in their last requisitions, considered Massachusetts as a *sixth* part. If this proportion be accurate, the whole amount of the excise will be 1,200,000 dollars.

This revenue is appropriated to the purposes of supporting the civil and military establishments, to the payment of the interest, and the diminution of the principal of the Public Debt.

In the year following, October 1st, 1789, the expenses and revenue of government were as follows,

	Expenses.		Revenue.
	Dols. Cts.		Dols. Cts.
Civil list	299,276. 53	Duties on Imports	1,903,790. 48
Additional expense	50,756. 7	Duties on Tonnage	165,465. 93
War Department	390,199. 54		
		Total	2,069,175. 47
Total	740,232. 14		

From a report of the Secretary of the Treasury, of the 23d of January 1792, it appears that the whole amount of the *domestic* debt of the United States, principal and interest, which has been subscribed to the loan proposed concerning that debt, by the act intituled, "An act making provision for the debt of the United States," is

	Dollars	31,797,481. 22
which, pursuant to the terms of that act, has been converted into stock		
-bearing an immediate interest of 6 per cent.		14,177,450. 43
Stock bearing the like interest from Jan. 1, 1801		7,088,727. 79
Stock bearing an immediate interest of 3 per cent.		10,531,33.
Making together	Dollars	31,797,481. 22

* Upwards of 5000 men have lately been raised, for *three* years, for the defence of the frontiers of the United States.

Of which there stands to the credit of the Trustees of the sinking fund, in consequence of purchases of the public debt made under their direction, the sum of

Dollars 1,131,364. 76

The unsubscribed residue of the said debt amounts to

10,616,604. 65

The debts of the respective States collectively are estimated to amount to

25,403,362

of which, 21,500,000 dollars have been assumed, and 17,072,334¹³⁰ subscribed, agreeably to act of Congress of 4th of August 1790.

The amount of a debt due to certain foreign officers, who served the United States during the late war, with arrears of interest, is

220,646. 81

FOREIGN DEBT.

The whole amount of the Foreign Debt of the United States is about 12 million dollars; of which about 6,900,000 dollars are due to France, and the rest to Holland. The Executive has been empowered to make an additional Loan in Holland, sufficient to pay the debt to France; and measures for that purpose have been in agitation in Holland.

The act, making provision for the debt of the United States, has appropriated the proceeds of the western lands as a fund for the discharge of the public debt. And the act, making provision for the reduction of the public debt, has appropriated all the surplus of the duties on imports and tonnage, to the end of the year 1790, to the purpose of purchasing the debt at the market price; and has authorized the President to borrow the further sum of two millions of dollars for the same object. These measures serve to indicate the intention of the legislature, as early and as fast as possible, to provide for the extinguishment of the existing debt.

The present eligible situation of the United States, compared with that of Europe at large, as it respects taxes or contributions for the payment of all public charges, appears from the following statement, furnished by a gentleman of acknowledged abilities. In the United States, the average proportion of his earnings which each citizen pays for the support of the civil, military, and naval establishments, and for the discharge of the interest of the public debts of his country, is about *one dollar and a quarter*; equal to *two days* labour, nearly; that is, 5 millions of dollars to 4 millions of people. In Great Britain, France, Holland, Spain, Portugal, Germany, &c. the taxes for these objects, on an average, amount to about *six dollars and a quarter* to each person. Hence it appears, that in the United States we enjoy the blessings of free government and mild laws; of personal liberty, and protection of property, for one fifth part of the sum for each individual, which is paid in Europe for the purchase of public benefits of a similar nature, and too generally without attaining their objects: for less than *one fifth*, indeed, as in European countries in general, 10 days labour, on an average, do not amount to 6 $\frac{1}{4}$ dollars. In this estimate proper allowances are made for public debts. The Indian war in the United States, at present, requires nearly half a million of dollars annually, extra; but this, being temporary only, is not taken into the estimate.

From the best data that can be collected, the taxes in the United States, for county, town and parish purposes; for the support of schools, the poor, roads, &c. appear to be considerably less than in those countries; and perhaps the objects, of them, except in roads, is attained in a more perfect degree. Great precision is not to be expected in these calculations; but we have sufficient documents to prove that we are not far from the truth. The proportion in the United States is well ascertained; and with equal accuracy in France, by Mr. Neckar; and in England, Holland, Spain, and other kingdoms in Europe, by him, Zimmermann, and other writers on the subject.

For the objects of the late war and civil government, in the United States, nearly 12 millions of dollars were annually raised, for nine years successively, apportioned on the number of inhabitants at that period, which amounted to a little short of *four dollars* to each person. This was raised principally by direct taxes. Perhaps a contribution of *six* dollars a person would not have been so severely felt, had a part of it been raised by impost and excise. These sums, raised for the war, by the free exertions of the people, obviate all such objections as assert that the United States are poor : at the same time they evince that their situation is eligible and prosperous, by shewing how large a proportion of their earnings, the people, in general, can apply to their private purposes.

BANK OF THE UNITED STATES.] This Bank was incorporated by act of Congress, February 25th, 1791, by the name and stile of *The President, Directors, and Company of the Bank of the United States*. The amount of the capital stock is 10 million dollars, one fourth of which is in gold and silver ; the other three fourths, in that part of the public debt of the United States, which, at the time of payment, bears an accruing interest of 6 per cent. per annum. Two millions of this capital stock of 10 millions, is subscribed by the President, in behalf of the United States. The Stockholders are to continue a corporate body by the act, until the 4th day of March 1811 ; and are capable, in law, of holding property to an amount not exceeding, in the whole, 15 million dollars, including the aforesaid 10 million dollars, capital stock. The corporation may not at any time owe, whether by bond, bill or note, or other contract, more than 10 million dollars, over and above the monies then actually deposited in the Bank for safe keeping, unless the contracting of any greater debt shall have been previously authorized by a law of the United States. The corporation is not at liberty to receive more than 6 per cent. per annum for or upon its loans or discounts ; nor to purchase any public debt whatever, or to deal or trade, directly or indirectly, in any thing except bills of exchange, gold or silver bullion, or in the sale of goods really and truly pledged for money lent, and not redeemed in due time, or of goods which shall be the produce of its bonds ; they may sell any part of the public debt of which its stock shall be composed. Loans, not exceeding 100,000 dollars, may be made to the United States, and to particular States, of a sum not exceeding 50,000 dollars.

Officers for the purposes of discount and deposit only, may be established within the United States, upon the same terms, and in the same manner, as shall be practised at the Bank. Four of these offices, called *Branch Banks*, have been already established, viz. at Boston, New York, Baltimore, and Charleston. The faith of the United States is pledged that no other bank shall be established by any future law of the United States, during the continuance of the above Corporation. The great benefits of this Bank, as it respects public credit and commerce, have already been experienced.

RELIGION.] The constitution of the United States provides against the making of any law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise of it. And in the constitutions of the respective States religious liberty is a fundamental principle. In this important article, our government is distinguished from that of every other nation, if we except France. Religion here is placed on its proper basis ; without the feeble and unwarranted aid of the civil power, it is left to be supported by its own evidence, by the lives of its professors, and the Almighty care of its Divine Author.

All being thus left at liberty to choose their own religion, the people, as might easily be supposed, have varied in their choice. The bulk of the people would denominate themselves Christians ; a small proportion of them are Jews ; some plead the sufficiency of natural religion, and reject revelation as unnecessary and fabulous ; and

many, we have reason to believe, have yet their religion to choose. Christians profess their religion under various forms, and with different ideas of its doctrines, ordinances, and precepts. The following denominations of Christians are more or less numerous in the United States, viz. Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Dutch Reformed Church, Episcopalians, Baptists, Quakers or Friends, Methodists, Roman Catholics, German Lutherans, German Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, Mennonists, Universalists, and Shakers.

Of these the CONGREGATIONALISTS are the most numerous. In New England alone, besides those which are scattered through the middle and southern States, there are not less than 1000 congregations of this denomination, viz.

In New Hampshire	-	-	-	200
Massachusetts	-	-	-	440
Rhode Island	-	-	-	13
Connecticut	-	-	-	197
Vermont (say)	-	-	-	150
Total				1000

It is difficult to say what is the present ecclesiastical constitution of the Congregational churches. Formerly their ecclesiastical proceedings were regulated, in Massachusetts, by the Cambridge Platform of church discipline, established by the synod, in 1648; and in Connecticut, by the Saybrook Platform of discipline; but since the revolution, less regard has been paid to these constitutions, and in many instances they are wholly disused. Congregationalists are pretty generally agreed in this opinion, that "Every church or particular congregation of visible saints, in gospel order, being furnished with a Pastor or Bishop, and walking together in truth and peace, has received from the Lord Jesus full power and authority, ecclesiastical within itself, regularly to administer all the ordinances of Christ, and is not under any other ecclesiastical jurisdiction whatsoever." Their churches, with some exceptions, disclaim the word *Independent*, as applicable to them, and claim a sisterly relation to each other.

From the answer of the elders, and other messengers of the churches assembled at Boston, in the year 1662, to the questions proposed to them by order of the General Court, it appears that the churches, at that period, professed to hold communion with each other in the following acts, viz.

1. "In hearty care and prayer one for another.—2. In affording relief, by communicating of their gifts in temporal or spiritual necessities.—3. In maintaining unity and peace, by giving account one to another of their public actions, when it is properly desired; to strengthen one another in their regular administrations; in particular by a concurrent testimony against persons justly censured.—4. To seek and accept help from, and afford help to each other, in case of divisions and contentions, whereby the peace of any church is disturbed; in matters of more than ordinary importance, as the ordination, installation, removal, and deposition of pastors or bishops; in doubtful and difficult questions and controversies, doctrinal or practical, that may arise; and for the rectifying of mal-administration, and healing of errors and scandals that are not healed among themselves.—5. In taking notice, with a spirit of love and faithfulness, of the troubles and difficulties, errors and scandals of another church, and to administer help (when the case manifestly calls for it) though they should so neglect their own good and duty, as not to seek it.—6. In admonishing one another, when there is cause for it; and after a due course of means, patiently to withdraw from a church, or peccant party therein, obstinately persisting in error or scandal."

A confociation of churches was, at the period mentioned, considered as necessary to a communion of churches, (the former being but an agreement to maintain the latter) and therefore a duty. The confociation of churches they defined to be, "Their mutual and solemn agreement to exercise communion in such acts as aforesaid (meaning the acts of communion above recited) amongst themselves, with special reference to those churches which, by Providence, are planted in a convenient vicinity, though with liberty reserved without offence, to make use of others, as the nature of the case, or the advantage of the opportunity may lead thereunto."

The ministers of the Congregational order are pretty generally associated for the purposes of licensing candidates for the ministry, and friendly intercourse and improvement: but there are few Congregational churches that are confociated on the above principles; and the practice has very generally gone into disuse, and with it the communion of churches in most of the acts before recited. In Connecticut and the western parts of Massachusetts, the churches have deviated less from their original constitution. The degeneracy of the Congregational churches from that order, fellowship, and harmony, in discipline, doctrines, and friendly advice and assistance in ecclesiastical matters, which formerly subsisted between them, is matter of deep regret to many, not to say to most people of that denomination. A reformation, or a return to a practice conformable to the original principles of the Congregational churches, is an event more earnestly desired, than confidently expected.

Congregationalists are divided in opinion respecting the doctrines of the gospel, and the proper subjects of its ordinances. The body of them are Calvinists; a respectable proportion are what may be denominated Hopkensian Calvinists; besides these, some are Arminians, some Arians, a few Socinians, and a number who have adopted Dr. Chauncy's scheme of the final salvation of all men.*

Next to the Congregationalists, PRESBYTERIANS are the most numerous denomination of Christians in the United States. They have a constitution by which they regulate all their ecclesiastical proceedings, and a confession of faith, which all church officers and church members are required to subscribe. Hence they have preserved a singular uniformity in their religious sentiments, and have conducted their ecclesiastical affairs with a great degree of order and harmony.

The body of the presbyterians inhabit the middle and southern States, and are united under the same constitution. By this constitution, the Presbyterians who are governed by it, are divided into five Synods and seventeen Presbyteries; viz. Synod of New York, 5 presbyteries, 94 congregations, 61 settled ministers.—2. Synod of Philadelphia, 5 presbyteries, 92 congregations, 60 settled ministers, besides the ministers and congregations belonging to Baltimore presbytery.—3. Synod of Virginia, 4 presbyteries, 70 congregations, 40 settled ministers, exclusive of the congregations and ministers of Transylvania presbytery.—4. Synod of the Carolinas, 3 presbyteries, 82 congregations, 42 settled ministers, the ministers and congregations in Abington presbytery not included. If we suppose the number of congregations in the presbyteries which made no returns to their synods, to be 100, and the number of settled ministers in the same to be 40, the whole number of presbyterian congregations in this connection will be 438, which are supplied by 223 settled ministers, and between 70 and 80 candidates, besides a number of ordained ministers who have no particular charges. Each of the four synods meet annually; besides which they have a joint meeting, by their commissioners, once a year, in General Assembly at Philadelphia.

* The reader will find a well-digested summary of the peculiar sentiments of each of these sects, in H. Adams's "View of Religions."

The Presbyterian churches are governed by congregational, presbyterial, and synodical assemblies: these assemblies possess no civil jurisdiction. Their power is wholly moral or spiritual, and that only ministerial or declarative. They possess the right of requiring obedience to the laws of Christ, and of excluding the disobedient from the privileges of the church; and the powers requisite for obtaining evidence and inflicting censure; but the highest punishment, to which their authority extends, is to exclude the contumacious and impenitent from the congregation of believers.

The *Church Session*, which is the congregational assembly of judicatory, consists of the minister or ministers and elders of a particular congregation. This body is invested with the spiritual government of the congregation; and have power to inquire into the knowledge and Christian conduct of all its members; to call before them offenders and witnesses, of their own denomination; to admonish, suspend, or exclude from the sacraments, such as deserve these censures; to concert measures for promoting the spiritual interests of the congregation, and to appoint delegates to the higher judicatories of the church.

A *Presbytery* consists of all the ministers, and one ruling elder from each congregation, within a certain district. Three ministers and three elders, constitutionally convened, are competent to do business. This body have cognizance of all things that regard the welfare of the particular churches within their bounds, which are not cognizable by the session. Also, they have a power of receiving and issuing appeals from the sessions—of examining and licensing candidates for the ministry—of ordaining, settling, removing, or judging ministers—of resolving questions of doctrine or discipline—of condemning erroneous opinions, that injure the purity or peace of the church—of visiting particular churches, to inquire into their state, and redress the evils that may have arisen in them—of uniting or dividing congregations, at the request of the people, and whatever else pertains to the spiritual concerns of the churches under their care.

A *Synod* is a convention of several presbyteries. The synod have power to admit and judge of appeals, regularly brought up from the presbyteries—to give their judgment on all references made to them of an ecclesiastical kind—to correct and regulate the proceedings of presbyteries—to take effectual care that presbyteries observe the constitution of the church, &c.

The highest judicatory of the Presbyterian church is styled *The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America*. This grand Assembly is to consist of an equal delegation of bishops and elders from each presbytery within their jurisdiction, by the title of *Commissioners to the General Assembly*. Fourteen commissioners make a quorum. The General Assembly constitute the bond of union, peace, correspondence, and mutual confidence among all their churches; and have power to receive and issue all appeals and references which may regularly be brought before them from inferior judicatories—to regulate and correct the proceedings of the synods, &c. To the General Assembly also belongs the power of consulting, reasoning, and judging in controversies respecting doctrine and discipline; of reproof, warning, or bearing testimony against error in doctrine, or immorality in practice in any church, presbytery, or synod—of corresponding with foreign churches—of putting a stop to schismatical contentions and disputations—and in general of recommending and attempting reformation of manners, and of promoting charity, truth, and holiness in all the churches—and also of erecting new synods when they judge it necessary.

The confession of faith adopted by the Presbyterian church, embraces what are called the Calvinistic doctrines; and none who disbelieve these doctrines are admitted into

into fellowship with their churches. The General Assembly of the Presbyterian church hold a friendly correspondence with the General Association in Connecticut, by letter, and by admitting delegates from their respective bodies to sit in each other's general meetings.

Disconnected with the churches of which we have been speaking, there are four small presbyteries in New England, who have a similar form of ecclesiastical government and discipline, and profess the same doctrines.

Besides these, there is the "Associate Presbytery of Pennsylvania," having a separate ecclesiastical jurisdiction in America, and belonging to the Associate Synod of Edinburgh, which they declare is the only ecclesiastical body, either in Britain or America, with which they are agreed concerning the doctrine and order of the church of Christ, and concerning the duty of confessing the truth, and bearing witness to it by a public testimony against the errors of the times. This connection is not to be understood as indicating subjection to a foreign jurisdiction; but is preserved for the sake of maintaining unity with their brethren in the profession of the Christian faith, and such an intercourse as might be of service to the interests of religion. This sect of Presbyterians are commonly known by the name of *Seceders*, on account of their seceding from the national church in Scotland, 1736.*

THE DUTCH REFORMED churches in the United States, who maintain the doctrine of the synod of Dort, held in 1618, are between 70 and 80 in number, constituting six classes, which form one synod, styled "The Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey." The classes consist of ministers and ruling elders; each class delegates two ministers and an elder to represent them in synod. From the first planting of the Dutch churches in New York and New Jersey, they have, under the direction of the classis of Amsterdam, been formed exactly upon the plan of the established church of Holland as far as that is ecclesiastical. A strict correspondence is maintained between the Dutch Reformed Synod of New York and New Jersey, and the synod of North Holland and the classis of Amsterdam. The acts of their synods are mutually exchanged every year, and mutual advice is given and received in disputes respecting doctrinal points and church discipline.

THE PROTESTANT EPISCOPAL Church in the United States (the churches of that denomination in New England excepted) met in Convention at Philadelphia, October 1785, and revised the book of common prayer, and administration of the sacraments, and other rites and ceremonies, with a view to render the liturgy consistent with the American Revolution. But this revised form was adopted by none of the churches, except one or two in Philadelphia.

In October 1789, at another meeting of their convention, a plan of union among all the Protestant Episcopal churches in the United States of America was agreed upon and settled; and an adequate representation from the several States being present, they again revised the book of common prayer, which is now published and generally adopted by their churches. They also agreed upon and published 17 canons for the government of their church, the first of which declares that "there shall, in this church, be three orders in the ministry, viz. Bishops, Priests, and Deacons."

At the same time they agreed upon a Constitution, which provides that there shall be a general convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States, on the second Tuesday of September, of every third year from 1789—That each state is entitled to a representation of both the clergy and laity, or either of them, and may

* See H. Adams's "View of Religions," Article, *Seceders*.

send deputies, not exceeding four of each order, chosen by the convention of the State—That the bishops of the church, when three or more are present, shall, in their general conventions, form a separate house, with a right to originate and propose acts for the concurrence of the house of deputies, composed of clergy and laity; and with a power to negative acts passed by the house of deputies, unless adhered to by four-fifths of the other house—That every bishop shall confine the exercise of his episcopal office to his proper diocese or district—That no person shall be admitted to holy orders, until examined by the bishop and two presbyters, having produced the requisite testimonials—and that no person shall be ordained until he shall have subscribed the following declaration—"I do believe the Holy Scriptures of the Old and New Testament to be the Word of God, and to contain all things necessary to salvation; and I do solemnly engage to conform to the doctrines and worship of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States."

They have not yet adopted any Articles of religion other than those contained in the Apostles and Nicene Creeds. The number of Episcopal churches in the United States is not ascertained; in New England there are between forty and fifty; but in the southern states, they are much more numerous. Four Bishops, viz. of Connecticut, New York, Pennsylvania, and Virginia, have been elected by the conventions of their respective States, and have been duly consecrated. The former by the Bishops of the Scotch Church, the three latter, by the Bishops of the English church. And these four, in September 1792, united in the consecration of a fifth, elected by the convention of the state of Maryland.

The BAPTISTS, with some exceptions, are upon the Calvinistic plan, as to doctrines, and independents as to church government and discipline. Except those who are styled "*open communion baptists*," of whom there is but one association, they refuse to communicate in the ordinance of the Lord's Supper with other denominations; because they hold that immersion only is the *true* baptism, and that baptism is necessary to communion; it is, therefore, improper and inconsistent, in their opinion, to admit *unbaptized* persons, (as all others are, in their view, but themselves) to join with them in this ordinance; though they allow ministers of other denominations to preach to their congregations, and sometimes to assist in ordaining their ministers.

From an account taken by a preacher* of the baptist denomination, who has travelled through the United States, to ascertain their number and state, we are enabled to give the following statement of their associations, churches, ministers, church members, and principles:

STATES	CHURCHES	MINISTERS		MEMBERS
		<i>ordained</i>	<i>licensed</i>	
New Hampshire	32	23	17	1732
Massachusetts	107	95	31	7116
Rhode Island	38	37	39	3502
Connecticut	55	44	21	3214
Vermont	34	21	15	1610
New York	57	53	30	3987
New Jersey	26	20	9	2279
Pennsylvania	28	26	7	1231
Delaware	7	9	1	409
Maryland	12	8	3	776
<i>Carried forward</i>	396	336	173	25856

* Mr. John Asplund.

THE UNITED STATES

STATES	CHURCHES	MINISTERS.		MEMBERS
		<i>ordained</i>	<i>licensed</i>	
<i>Brought forward</i>	396	336	173	25856
Virginia	207	157	109	20157
Kentucky	42	40	21	3105
Western Territory	1	—	—	30
North Carolina	94	81	76	7742
Deceded Territory	18	15	6	889
South Carolina	68	48	28	4012
Georgia	42	33	9	3184
Total	868	710	422	64975

Of these there are

	Assoc.	CHUR.	MINISTERS.		MEM.
			<i>ordained</i>	<i>licensed</i>	
Six principle Baptists	1	18	26	4	1599
Open Communion Do.	1	15	13	4	1714
General Provision Do.	3	30	26	19	1948
Seventh Day Do.		10	13	3	887
Regular or Particular Do.	30	795	632	392	58827
Total	35	868	710	422	64675

To this account, the compiler conjectures that 1500 members, and 30 churches ought to be added—making the whole number of churches about 900, and the members about 66,000. He supposes moreover that at least *three times* as many attend their meetings, as have joined their churches, which, if we suppose all who attend their meetings are in principle Baptists, will make the whole number of that denomination in these states, 198,000, or a twenty-sixth part of the inhabitants.

Some of the leading principles of the regular or particular baptists, are—The imputation of Adam's sin to his posterity—the inability of man to recover himself—effectual calling by sovereign grace—justification by the imputed righteousness of Christ—immersion for baptism, and that on profession of faith and repentance—congregational churches, and their independency, and reception into them upon evidence of sound conversion.

We shall next speak of the people called QUAKERS.* This denomination of Christians arose about the year 1648, and were first collected into religious societies by their highly respected elder, George Fox. They came to America as early as 1656. The first settlers of Pennsylvania were all of this denomination; and the number of Friends meetings in the United States, at present, is about 320.

Their doctrinal tenets may be summarily expressed as follows—In common with other Christians, they believe in One Eternal God, and in Jesus Christ the Messiah and Mediator of the new covenant. To Christ alone, in whose divinity they believe, they give the title of the *Word* of God, and not to the Scriptures; yet they profess a high esteem for these sacred writings, in subordination to the Spirit who indited them, and

* They received their appellation from this circumstance —“ In the year 1650, George Fox, being brought before two justices in Derbyshire, one of them, scoffing at him, for having bidden him and those about him, to *tremble* at the word of the Lord, gave to him and his followers, the name of *Quakers*; a name by which they have since been usually denominated: but they themselves adopted the appellation of *Friends*.

believe that they are able, through faith, to make wise to salvation—They reverence the excellent precepts of Scripture, and believe them practicable and binding on every Christian; and that in the life to come, every man will be rewarded according to his works. In order to enable mankind to put in practice these precepts, they believe, that every man coming into the world is endued with a measure of the Light, Grace or Good Spirit of Christ; by which he is enabled to distinguish good from evil, and correct the disorderly passions and corrupt propensities of his nature, which mere reason is altogether insufficient to overcome—that this divine grace is, to those who sincerely seek it, an all-sufficient and present help in time of need—and that by it the snares of the enemy are detected, his allurements avoided, and deliverance experienced, through faith in its effectual operation, and the soul translated out of the kingdom of darkness into the marvellous light and kingdom of the Son of God—Thus persuaded, they think this divine influence especially necessary to the performance of the highest act of which the human mind is capable, the worship of God in spirit and in truth; and therefore consider, as obstructions to pure worship, all forms which divert the mind from the secret influence of this unction of the Holy One—Though true worship is not confined to time or place, they believe it is incumbent on churches to meet often together, but dare not depend for acceptance on a formal repetition of the words and experiences of others—They think it is their duty to wait in silence to have a true sight of their condition bestowed on them; and believe, even a single sigh, arising from a sense of their infirmities and need of divine help, to be more acceptable to God, than any performances which originate in the will of man.

They believe the renewed assistance of the light and power of Christ, which is not at our command, nor attainable by study, but the free gift of God, to be indispensably necessary to all true ministry—Hence arises their testimony against preaching for hire, and conscientious refusal to support such ministry by tithes or other means.—As they dare not encourage any ministry, but such as they believe to spring from the influence of the Holy Spirit; so neither dare they attempt to restrain this influence to persons of any condition in life, or to the male sex—but allow such of the female sex as appear to be qualified, to exercise their gifts for the general edification of the church.

They hold that as there is one Lord and one faith, so his baptism is one in nature and operation, and that nothing short of it can make us living members of his mystical body; and that baptism with water belonged to an inferior and decreasing dispensation. With respect to the Lord's Supper, they believe that communication between Christ and his church is not maintained by that nor any other external ordinance, but only by a real participation of his divine nature, through faith; that this is the supper alluded to Rev. iii. 20—and that where the substance is attained, it is unnecessary to attend to the shadow.

Believing that the grace of God is alone sufficient for salvation, they can neither admit that it is conferred on a few only, while others are left without it; nor, thus asserting its universality, can they limit its operation to a partial cleansing of the soul from sin, even in this life—On the contrary, they believe that God doth vouchsafe to assist the obedient to submit to the guidance of his pure spirit, through whose assistance they are enabled to bring forth fruits unto holiness, and to stand *perfect* in their present rank.

As to oaths, they abide literally by Christ's positive injunction, "Swear not at all." They believe that "wars and fightings" are, in their origin and effects, utterly repugnant to the Gospel, which still breathes peace and good will to

men.* They also are firmly persuaded, that if the benevolence of the Gospel were generally prevalent in the minds of men, it would effectually prevent them from oppressing, much more from enslaving † their brethren, of whatever complexion; and would even influence their treatment of the brute creation, which would no longer groan the victims of their avarice, or of their false ideas of pleasure.—They profess that their principles, which inculcate submission to the laws in all cases wherein conscience is not violated, are a security to the salutary purposes of government.—But they hold that the civil magistrate has no right to interfere in matters of religion, and think persecution, in any degree, unwarrantable.—They reject the use of those names of the months and days, which, having been given in honour of the heroes or gods of the heathen, originated in their flattery or superstition; and the custom of speaking to a single person in the plural number, as having arisen also from motives of adulation. Compliments, superfluity of apparel or furniture, outward shews of rejoicing or mourning, and observations of days and times, they deem incompatible with the simplicity and sincerity of a Christian life—and they condemn public diversions, gaming, and other vain amusements of the world.—They require no formal subscription to any articles, either as the condition of membership, or to qualify for the service of the church.

To effect the salutary purposes of discipline, Monthly, Quarterly, and Yearly meetings are established.—A monthly meeting is composed of several neighbouring congregations.—Its business is to provide for the subsistence of the poor, and for the education of their offspring—to judge of the sincerity and fitness of persons appearing to be convinced of the religious principles of the society, and desiring to be admitted to membership; to excite due attention to the discharge of religious and moral duties; to deal with disorderly members—to appoint overseers to see that the rules of their discipline are put in practice—to allow of marriages, &c.‡

A Quarterly meeting is composed of several Monthly meetings. At this meeting are produced written answers from monthly meetings, to certain questions respecting the conduct of their members and the meeting's care over them. The accounts thus received, are digested and sent by representatives to the yearly meeting. Appeals from the judgement of monthly meetings are brought to the quarterly meetings.

The Yearly meeting has the general superintendence of the society in the country in which it is established.§ The business of this meeting is to give forth its advice—make such regulations as appear to be requisite, or excite to the observance of those already made, &c. Appeals from the judgement of quarterly meetings are here finally deter-

* During the late war, some of their number, contrary to this article of their faith, thought it their duty to take up arms in defence of their country. This laid the foundation of a secession from their brethren, and they now form a separate congregation in Philadelphia, by the name of the "Resisting or fighting Quakers."

† In the present war of liberality and humanity, against avarice and cruelty, in defence of the Blacks, the Quakers have had the signal honour of having first set the illustrious example.

‡ Their mode of marrying is as follows—Those who intend to marry, appear together, and propose their intention to the monthly meeting, and if not attended by their parents or guardians, produce a written certificate of their consent, signed in the presence of witnesses. The meeting then appoints a committee to inquire whether they are clear of other engagements respecting marriage; and if at a subsequent meeting, to which the parties also come and declare the continuance of their intention, no objections are reported, they have the meeting's consent to solemnize their intended marriage. This is done in a public meeting for worship, towards the close of which the parties stand up and solemnly take each other for husband and wife. A certificate of the proceedings is then publicly read, and signed by the parties, and afterwards by the relations and others as witnesses, which closes the solemnity.

§ The Quakers have, in all, *seven* yearly meetings. One in London, to which come representatives from Ireland. The other six are in the United States. 1. New England, 2. New York, 3. New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, 4. Maryland, 5. Virginia, 6. The Carolinas and Georgia,

mined; and a brotherly correspondence, by epistles, is maintained with other yearly meetings.

As they believe women may be rightly called to the work of the ministry, they also think they may share in their Christian discipline. Accordingly *they* have monthly, quarterly, and yearly meetings of their own sex; held at the same time, and in the same place with those of the men; but separately, and without the power of making rules.

Their elders and ministers have meetings peculiar to themselves. These meetings, called Meetings of ministers and elders, are generally held in the compass of each monthly, quarterly, and yearly meeting—for the purposes of exciting each other to the discharge of their several duties—of extending advice to those who may appear weak, &c. They also, in the intervals of the yearly meetings, give certificates to those ministers who travel abroad in the work of the ministry.

The yearly meeting, held in London, 1675, appointed a meeting to be held in that city, for the purpose of advising or assisting in cases of suffering for conscience sake, called a Meeting for sufferings, which is yet continued. It is composed of Friends under the name of correspondents, chosen by the several quarterly meetings, who reside in and near the city. This meeting is entrusted with the care of printing and distributing books, and with the management of its stock, and considered as a standing committee of the yearly meeting.—In none of their meetings have they a President, as they believe Divine Wisdom alone ought to preside; nor has any member a right to claim pre-eminence over the rest.

The METHODIST denomination of Christians arose in England in 1739; and made their first appearance in America about 24 years since. Their general style is, “The United Societies of the Methodist Episcopal Church.” They profess themselves to be “a company of men, having the form and seeking the power of godliness, united in order to pray together, to receive the word of exhortation, and to watch over one another in love, that they may help each other to work out their salvation.”—Each society is divided into classes of 12 persons; one of whom is styled *the Leader*, whose business it is to see each person in his class once a week, in order to inquire how their souls prosper, to advise, reprove, comfort, or exhort as occasion may require; and to receive contributions for the relief of the Church and Poor. In order to admission into their societies they require only one condition, viz. “A desire to flee from the wrath to come, i. e. a desire to be saved from their sins.” It is expected of all who continue in their societies, that they should evidence their desire of salvation, by doing no harm, by avoiding all manner of evil, by doing all manner of good, as they have ability and opportunity, especially to the household of faith; employing them preferably to others, buying of one another (unless they can be served better elsewhere) and helping each other in business—And also by attending upon all the ordinances of God; such as public worship, the supper of the Lord, family and private prayer, searching the scriptures, and fasting or abstinence. The late celebrated Mr. John Wesley is considered as the father of this class of Methodists, who, as they deny some of the leading Calvinistic doctrines, and hold some of the peculiar tenets of Arminius, may be called *Arminian Methodists*.—The famous Mr. Whitefield was the leader of the *Calvinistic Methodists*, who are numerous in England, and a few are in different parts of the United States, who are patronized and supplied with ministers, by the late Lady Huntingdon.

In 1788, the number of *Wesleyan* Methodists in the United States stood in the following manner:

Georgia	-	-	2011	Delaware	} - -	1998
South Carolina	-	-	3366	Pennsylvania		
North Carolina	-	-	6779	New Jersey		1751
Virginia	-	-	14356	New York		2004
Maryland	-	-	11017			
						Total 43265

Since this estimate of their numbers was taken, some few scattering societies have been collected in different parts of the New England States, and their numbers increased in other parts; so that in 1790, the whole connection amounted to 57,621. To superintend the methodist connection in America, they had, in 1788, two Bishops, 30 Elders, and 50 Deacons.

In Great Britain and Ireland, the whole number of persons in full connection with the Methodist Episcopal church, amounted, in 1790, to 71,568.

The whole number of ROMAN CATHOLICS in the United States is estimated at about 50,000; one half of which are in the State of Maryland. Their peculiar and leading doctrines and tenets are too generally known to need a recital here. They have a Bishop, who resides in Baltimore, and many of their congregations are large and respectable.

The German inhabitants in these states, who principally belong to Pennsylvania and New York, are divided into a variety of sects; the principal of which are, Lutherans, Calvinists or Presbyterians, Moravians, Tunkers, and Mennonists. Of these the German Lutherans are the most numerous. Of this denomination, and the German Presbyterians or Calvinists, who are next to them in numbers, there are upwards of 60 ministers in Pennsylvania—and the former have 12, and the latter 6 churches in the state of New York. Many of their churches are large and splendid, and in some instances furnished with organs. These two denominations live together in the greatest harmony, often preaching in each other's churches, and sometimes uniting in the erection of a church, in which they alternately worship.

The MORAVIANS are a respectable body of Christians in these States. Of this denomination, there were, in 1788, about 1300 souls in Pennsylvania; viz. at Bethlehem, between 5 and 600, which number has since increased—at Nazareth, 450—at Litiz, upwards of 300. Their other settlements, in the United States, are at Hope, in New Jersey, about 100 souls; at Wachovia, on Yadkin river, North Carolina, containing 6 churches. Besides these regular settlements, formed by such only as are members of the brethren's church, and live together in good order and harmony, there are in different parts of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and New Jersey, and in the cities of Newport, (Rhode Island) New York, Philadelphia, Lancaster, York-town, &c. congregations of the brethren, who have their own church and minister, and hold the same principles, and doctrinal tenets, and church rites and ceremonies as the former, though their local situation does not admit of such particular regulations, as are peculiar to the regular settlements.

They call themselves, "*The United Brethren of the Protestant Episcopal Church.*" They are called Moravians, because the first settlers in the English dominions were chiefly emigrants from Moravia. These were the remnant and genuine descendents of the church of the ancient United Brethren, established in Bohemia and Moravia, as early as the year 1456. About the middle of the last century, they left their native country to avoid persecution, and to enjoy liberty of conscience, and the true exercise of the religion of their forefathers. They were received in Saxony, and other Protestant dominions, and were encouraged to settle among them, and were joined by many

many serious people of other dominions. They adhere to the Augustin Confession of Faith, which was drawn up by Protestant divines at the time of the reformation in Germany, in the year 1530, and presented at the diet of the empire at Aufburg; and which, at that time, contained the doctrinal system of all the established Protestant churches. They retain the discipline of their ancient church, and make use of Episcopal ordination, which has been handed down to them in a direct line of succession for more than three hundred years.*

They profess to live in strict obedience to the ordinances of Christ, such as the observation of the Sabbath, Infant Baptism, and the Lord's Supper; and in addition to these, they practise the foot washing, the kiss of love, and the use of the lot.

They were introduced into America by Count Zinzendorf, and settled at Bethle-hem, which is their principal settlement in America, as early as 1741. Regularity, industry, ingenuity, and œconomy, are characteristics of these people.

The TUNKERS are so called in derision, from the word *tunken*, to put a morsel in sauce. The English word that conveys the proper meaning of Tunkers is *Sops* or *Dippers*. They are also called Tumblers, from the manner in which they perform baptism, which is by putting the person, while kneeling, head first under water, so as to resemble the motion of the body in the action of tumbling. The Germans found the letters *t* and *b* like *d* and *p*; hence the words Tunkers and Tumblers, have been corruptly written Dunkers and Dumplers.

The first appearing of these people in America was in the fall of the year 1719, when about twenty families landed in Philadelphia, and dispersed themselves in various parts of Pennsylvania. They are what are called General Baptists, and hold to general redemption and general salvation. They use great plainness of dress and language, and will neither swear, nor fight, nor go to law, nor take interest for the money they lend. They commonly wear their beards—keep the first day Sabbath, except one congregation—have the Lord's Supper with its ancient attendants of Love-feasts, with washing of feet, kiss of charity, and right hand of fellowship. They anoint the sick with oil for their recovery, and use the trine immersion, with laying on of hands and prayer, even while the person baptised is in the water. Their church government and discipline are the same with those of the English Baptists, except that every brother is allowed to speak in the congregation; and their best speaker is usually ordained to be their minister. They have deacons, deaconesses (from among their ancient widows) and exhorters, who are all licensed to use their gifts stately. On the whole, notwithstanding their peculiarities, they appear to be humble, well-meaning Christians, and have acquired the character of the *harmless* Tunkers.

Their principal settlement is at Ephrata, sometimes called Tunkers'-own, in Lancaster county, sixty miles westward of Philadelphia. It consists of about forty buildings, of which three are places of worship: one is called Sharon, and adjoins the sister's apartment as a chapel; another, belonging to the brothers' apartment, is called Bethany. To these the brethren and sisters resort, separately, to worship morning and evening, and sometimes in the night. The third is a common church, called Zion, where all in the settlement meet once a week for public worship. The brethren have

* See David Crantz' Hist. of 'The ancient and modern United Brethren's Church, translated from the German, by the Rev. Benjamin La Trobe.' London, 1780. Those who wish to obtain a thorough and impartial knowledge of their religious sentiments and customs, may see them excellently summed up in a plain, but nervous style, in 'An exposition of Christian Doctrine, as taught in the Protestant church of the United Brethren,' written in German, by A. G. Spangenberg, and translated and published in English in 1784.

adopted the White Friars' dress, with some alterations; the sisters that of the nuns; and both like them have taken the vow of celibacy. All, however, do not keep the vow. When they marry, they leave their cells and go among the married people. They subsist by cultivating their lands, by attending a printing office, a grist mill, a paper mill, an oil mill, &c. and the sisters by spinning, weaving, sewing, &c. They at first slept on board couches, but now on beds, and have otherwise abated much of their former severity. This congregation keep the seventh day Sabbath. Their singing is charming, owing to the pleasantness of their voices, the variety of parts, and the devout manner of performance. Besides this congregation at Ephrata, there were, in 1770, fourteen others in various other parts of Pennsylvania, and some in Maryland. The whole, exclusive of those in Maryland, amounted to upwards of 2000 souls.

The MENNONISTS derive their name from Menno Simon, a native of Witmars in Germany, a man of learning, born in the year 1505, in the time of the reformation by Luther and Calvin. He was a famous Roman Catholic preacher, till about the year 1531, when he became a Baptist. Some of his followers came into Pennsylvania from New York and settled at German-town, as early as 1692. This is at present their principal congregation, and the mother of the rest. Their whole number, in 1770, in Pennsylvania, was upwards of 4000, divided into thirteen churches, and forty-two congregations, under the care of fifteen ordained ministers, and fifty-three licensed preachers.

The Mennonists do not, like the Tunkers, hold the doctrine of general salvation; yet like them, they will neither swear nor fight, nor bear any civil office, nor go to law, nor take interest for the money they lend, though many break this last rule. Some of them wear their beards; wash each others feet, &c. and all use plainness of speech and dress. Some have been expelled their society for wearing buckles in their shoes, and having pocket holes in their coats. Their church government is democratical. They call themselves the Harmless Christians, Revengeless Christians, and Weaponless Christians. They are Baptists rather in name than in fact; for they do not use immersion. Their common mode of baptism is this: the person to be baptized kneels; the minister holds his hands over him, into which the deacon pours water, which runs through upon the head of the person kneeling. After this, follow imposition of hands and prayer.

The denomination styled UNIVERSALISTS, though their schemes are very various, may properly enough be divided into two classes, viz. Those who embrace the scheme of Dr. Chauncey, exhibited in his book entitled "The Salvation of all Men;" and the disciples of Mr. Winchester and Mr. John Murray.

A judicious summary of Dr. Chauncey's sentiments has been given,* as follows:

"That the scheme of revelation has the happiness of all mankind lying at bottom, as its great and ultimate end; that it gradually tends to this end; and will not fail of its accomplishment, when fully completed. Some, in consequence of its operation, as conducted by the Son of God, will be disposed and enabled, in this present state, to make such improvements in virtue, the only rational preparative for happiness, as that they shall enter upon the enjoyment of it in the next state. Others, who have proved incurable under the means which have been used with them in this state, instead of being happy in the next, will be awfully miserable; not to continue so finally, but that they may be convinced of their folly, and recovered to a virtuous frame of mind:

* In H. Adams's "View of Religions," article *Universalists*, where the reader may find also a summary of the arguments for and against his scheme.

and this will be the effect of the future torments upon many; the consequence whereof will be their salvation, they being thus fitted for it. And there may be yet other states, before the scheme of God may be perfected, and mankind universally cured of their moral disorders, and in this way qualified for, and finally initiated in, eternal happiness. But however many states some of the individuals of the human species may pass through, and of however long continuance they may be, the whole is intended to subserve the grand design of *universal happiness*, and will finally terminate in it; inasmuch, that the *Son of God* and *Saviour of men* will not deliver up his trust into the hands of the *Father*, who committed it to him, till he has discharged his obligations in virtue of it; having finally fixed all men in heaven, when God will be *All in All*.

The number of this denomination is not known. The open advocates of this scheme are few; though the number is larger, who embrace the doctrine of the salvation of all men, upon principles similar, but variously differing from those on which the above-mentioned scheme is grounded.

The latter class of Universalists have a new scheme, differing essentially from that of the former, which they reject as inconsistent and absurd: and they cannot conceive how they who embrace it, can, "with any degree of propriety, be called Universalists, on Apostolic principles, as it does not appear that they have any idea of being saved by, or in the Lord, with an everlasting, or with any salvation."—Hence they call them "Pharisaical Universalists, who are *willing to justify themselves*." *

It is difficult to say what is the present scheme of the denomination of which we are now speaking; for they differ not only from all other Universalists, and from each other, but even from themselves at different periods. The reader, however, may form an idea of some of their tenets from what follows, collected from the letter referred to in the note. This letter, written lately, by the head of the denomination, and professing to rectify mistakes respecting doctrines propagated under the Christian name—to give the character of a *Consistent Universalist*—and to acquaint the world with their *real* sentiments, we have reason to conclude, gives as true an account of their scheme as can be obtained.

From this letter it appears, that they believe "that Religion of *some sort or other*, is a public benefit;" and that every person is at liberty, and is bound, to support what he conceives to be the *true Religion*—That public worship on *every first day* of the week, is an incumbent duty on *all* real lovers of divine truth—that prayer, as it indicates trust in, and dependence on God, is part of his worship—They believe that the *Deceiver*, who beguiled Eve, and not our *first parents* themselves, did the deed which brought *ruin* and death on all the human race—That there are two classes of fallen sinners—the *Angels* who kept not their first estate, and the *human nature*, deceived by the former, and *apparently* destroyed consequent thereon—that a *just God*, in the law given by Moses, has denounced death and the curse on *every one who continueth not in all things, written in the book of the law to do them*—but that the *same God* was manifested in the flesh as the head of every man, *made under the law, to redeem them that are under the law, being made a curse for them*—that he *tasted death for every man*, being a Saviour, not of a *few only*, but of *all men*—and that the declaration of this is the *Gospel*.—They believe that when God denounces on the human race, woes, wrath, tribulation, death, damnation, &c. in the Scriptures, he speaks in his legislative capacity, as the just God who will *by no means clear the guilty*—that when he speaks of mercy, grace, peace, of life as the gift of God, and salvation in whole or in part, he speaks in the character of the

* See Mr. Murray's "Letter to a Friend," page 40, 41. printed in Boston, 1791.

just God and Saviour—that the former is the language of the law; the latter is the language of the Gospel.

Confession of sins—Repentance, and supplications for mercy and forgiveness, make no part of their creed or worship.

They believe that the Prince of Peace came to save the *human nature* from the power and dominion of the Devil, and his works—that he came to destroy the latter, that he might save the former—That “Sin is the work of the Devil—that he is the *Worker* and *Doer* of whatever gives offence”—That Jesus, as the Saviour of the world, shall separate from his kingdom, both the *evil Worker* and his evil works; the *evil Worker*, in the character of *goats*—the *evil works* in the character of *tares*.—They suppose that what is wicked in mankind, is represented by the *evil seed* sown by the *evil One* in *human nature*, and that “when the Sower of the evil seed, and all the evil seed sown, shall be separated from the seed which God sowed, then the seed which is properly God’s seed, will be like him who sowed it, *pure and holy*.”

They consider all ordinances as *merely shadows*; yet they celebrate the Lord’s Supper, by eating and drinking wine—and some of them suppose that *every* time they eat bread and drink wine, they comply with our Lord’s injunction, “Do this in remembrance of me.”—Various other opinions prevail among them respecting this ordinance, and that of baptism. They “admit of but *one* baptism, the baptizer Jesus Christ; the elements made use of, the Holy Ghost and fire”—yet they are willing, in order to avoid contention, “to become all things to all men,” and to baptize infants by sprinkling, or adults by immersion—or to omit these signs altogether, according as the opinions of parents may vary upon this subject—Some think it proper to *dedicate* their children to the Lord, by putting them into the arms of the minister, to be by him presented to Christ, to be baptized with his baptism, in the name of the Trinity, the minister at the same time to bless them in the words in which God commanded Aaron and his sons to bless the children of Israel—“The Lord bless thee, &c.”—It appears, in short, that their notions respecting these ordinances are various, vague, and unsettled.

They believe in a judgement *past* and a judgement to come—that the *past* judgement is either that in which the world was judged in the second Adam; according to the word of the Saviour, “*Now is the judgement of this world—now is the Prince of this world cast out* and judgement executed on *them* and on the whole *human nature*, according to the righteous judgement of God—or that which every man is to exercise upon himself, according to the words “*judge yourselves and ye shall not be judged*”—“The judgement to come is that in which all who have not judged themselves—all unbelievers of the human race, and all the fallen angels, shall be judged by the Saviour—but these two characters, viz. *unbelievers of the human race*, and the *fallen angels*, shall be placed, the former on the right, the latter on the left hand of their Judge; the one under the denomination of *sheep*, for whose salvation the Saviour laid down his life—the other under the denomination of *goats*, who are the accursed, whose nature he passed by—“The *human nature*” (i. e. the *sheep* or unbelievers of the human race) “as the offspring of the everlasting Father, and the *ransomed of the Lord*—shall be brought, by divine power, into the *kingdom prepared for them, before the foundation of the world*—the other *nature*, (i. e. the goats, or fallen angels) “will be sent into the *fire prepared for them*.”* From which

* The reader will doubtless notice that the plural pronoun *them*, is several times used to express the singular noun *human nature*, and *Prince of this world*, as the *human nature*, &c. shall be brought into the kingdom prepared for *them*; the other *nature* will be sent into the fire prepared for *them*—the *Prince of this world* shall be

which it appears, that it is their opinion, that *unbelievers of the human race, or sleep, and the fallen angels, or goats*, will be the only classes of creatures concerned in the awards of the last judgement—and that the righteous, or believers in Christ, will not then be judged, having previously judged themselves*—“But the rest of mankind,” say they, “will be the subjects of this judgement, when our Saviour *shall be revealed from heaven in flaming fire, taking vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the gospel; and they shall then be punished with everlasting destruction from the presence of the Lord and the glory of his power.*” Their inference from, and exposition of this passage, are peculiar, and will serve to give the reader an idea of their manner of explaining other parallel passages of Scripture. From this awful revelation of the Saviour, to take vengeance on them that know not God, and obey not the gospel, they infer this consequence, they shall then be made to know God, and obey the gospel.”—The everlasting destruction, from the presence of the Lord and the glory of his power, with which they *shall* be punished, they suppose is suffered by unbelievers, in consequence of the *revelation* of the everlasting destruction, *previous* to this awful period—and that they will suffer no punishment *after* it—for “it is not said,” they say, “that they shall be *everlastingly* punished with destruction.” They explain their idea of *everlasting punishment* and *suffering the pain of eternal fire*, thus, “Were it *possible* to find a culinary fire that never would be extinguished, but in the strictest sense of the word, was *everlasting* or *eternal*—should any member of the body pass through that burning flame, though but a *moment of time* had been thus spent in passing through; yet even in that *moment*, it would suffer the pain of *eternal fire.*”—But whether they believe it *possible* that there should be such a fire, or that unbelievers shall be doomed to suffer the *punishment of eternal fire* by thus passing through it, they do not declare.

They do not suppose that “all mankind will be on a level in the article of death, but that they who die in unbelief, will *lie down in sorrow*, and rise to the resurrection of damnation, or condemnation; and when the books shall be opened, and the dead, both small and great, shall be judged out of the things written in the books—every mouth shall be stopped, and all the world become guilty before God; and while conscious of guilt, but *ignorant* of a Saviour—they shall call on the rocks and mountains to fall on them to hide them from the wrath of the Lamb—But that in *this judgement* the *judge* is the *Saviour*—they will be judged by *their own head*,” and as the head of every man is Christ—all of course must be acquitted and saved.

Although they believe that the Devil is the *doer* or *worker* of every thing that gives offence; yet they assert that “*all men at all times* are sinners, and come short of the glory of God”—but they believe that what Christ suffered, “was considered by the *Great Lawgiver*, as done and suffered by every man in his own person; and that every man is as much interested in what Christ, the second Adam did, as they were in what the first Adam did”—thus believing they consider God as just in being their Saviour, as he would have been in their eternal damnation.

The *Consistent Universalist*, “does not consider himself under the law any more than a woman considers herself under the direction or dominion of a husband that is dead and buried—nor is he afraid of death, being assured that Jesus hath abolished death, and left nothing of it but the *shadow.*”

be cast out, and judgement be executed on *them*. This is a phraseology peculiar to this denomination, for the grammatical propriety of which, the compiler does not hold himself responsible.

* In the following passage, the contrary seems to be asserted. Speaking of the last judgement it is said, “Here, instead of head and members being judged together, by the *head, Christ, the divine nature*, the members are considered in their distinct characters, as *good* and *evil*, or *believer* and *unbeliever*, as *children of light*, and *children of darkness*—and *judged by their own head.*”

Letter, p. 33.

The Universalists of this denomination, in common with other Christians, profess themselves to be the advocates of *piety, religion, and morality*.—They assert the duty of doing right as men—as members of civil society—and as Christians. “As mere men” they hold, that “they must follow nature, or they will sink beneath the level of the beasts of the field”—and yet they assert that “all the righteousness found in the best of mere human nature is but as a flimsy rag”—That as members of civil society they must submit to the laws, or if thought too severe, they may avoid them by a removal from the state.”—That as Christians they must be under the direction of Christ, and *do whatever he commands them*; and these are his commandments, “that we believe in him, and love one another.”

There are but a few of this denomination of Universalists in the United States.—Of these few, some are in Pennsylvania—some in different parts of New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and New Hampshire; but the body of them are in Boston, and Gloucester, in Massachusetts. They have several constituted churches, which are governed by an ecclesiastical constitution, formed in 1789, by a small convention of their ministers at Philadelphia.

There is a small and singular sect of Christians, called SHAKERS, which have sprung up among us as lately as 1774; when a few of this sect came from England to New York, and there being joined by a few others, they settled at Nissequenia, above Albany, which is their principal settlement: a few others are scattered in different parts of the country.

The head of this party, while she lived,* was Anna Lee, styled the Elect Lady. Her followers asserted, that she was the woman spoken of in the twelfth chapter of the Revelation, and that she spoke seventy-two tongues: and although these tongues were unintelligible to the living, she conversed with the dead who understood her language. They alledged also that she was the mother of all the *Elect*; that she travailed for the whole world—that no blessing could descend to any person but only by and through her, and that in the way of her being possessed of their sins, by their confessing and repenting of them, one by one, according to her direction.

Their leading doctrinal tenets, as given by one of their own denomination, are, “That the first resurrection is already come, and now is the time to judge themselves. That they have power to heal the sick, to raise the dead, and cast out devils. That they have a correspondence with angels, the spirits of the saints and their departed friends. That they speak with divers kind of tongues in their public assemblies. That it is lawful to practise *vocal music* with *dancing* in the Christian churches, if it be practised in praising the Lord. That their church is come out of the order of natural generation, to be as Christ was; and that those who have wives are as though they had none. That by these means heaven begins upon earth, and they thereby lose their earthly and sensual relation to Adam the first, and come to be transparent in their ideas, in the bright and heavenly visions of God. That some of their people are of the number of the 144,000, who were redeemed from the earth, and were not defiled with women. That the word everlasting, when applied to the punishment of the wicked, means only a limited period, except in the case of those who fall from *their church*; and that for such there is no forgiveness, neither in this world nor that which is to come. That it is unlawful to swear, game, or use compliments—and that water baptism and the Lord's Supper are abolished. That Adam's sin is not imputed to his posterity—and that the doctrines of election and reprobation are to be rejected.”

* Notwithstanding her predictions and assertions to the contrary, she died in 1784; and was succeeded by one James Whitaker, who also died in 1787. Joseph Meacham, who has attained the reputation of a prophet among them, is at present their Leader.

The discipline of this denomination is founded on the supposed perfection of their leaders. The Mother, or the Elect Lady, it is said, obeys God through Christ. *European* elders obey her. *American* labourers, and common people obey them; while confession is made of every secret thing, from the oldest to the youngest. The people are made to believe that they are seen through and through in the gospel glass of perfection, by their teachers, who behold the state of the dead, and innumerable worlds of spirits good and bad.

These people are generally instructed to be very industrious, and to bring in according to their ability, to keep up the meeting. They vary in their exercises. Their heavy dancing, as it is called, is performed by a perpetual springing from the house floor, about four inches up and down, both in the men's and women's apartment, moving about with extraordinary transport, singing sometimes one at a time, sometimes more, making a perfect charm.

This elevation affects the nerves, so that they have intervals of shuddering, as if they were in a strong fit of the ague. They sometimes clap hands and leap so as to strike the joists above their heads. They throw off their outside garments in these exercises, and spend their strength very cheerfully this way. Their chief speaker often calls for attention; when they all stop and hear some harangue, and then fall to dancing again. They assert that their dancing is the token of the great joy and happiness of the new *Jerusalem state*, and denotes the victory over sin. One of the postures, which increases among them, is turning round very swift for an hour or two. This, they say, is to show the great power of God.

They sometimes fall on their knees and make a sound like the roaring of many waters, in groans and cries to God, as they say, for the wicked world who persecute them.*

The Jews are not numerous in the United States. They have synagogues at Savannah, Charleston, (South Carolina) Philadelphia, New York, and Newport. Besides those who reside at these places, there are others scattered in different towns in the United States.

The Jews in Charleston, among other peculiarities in burying their dead, have these: After the funeral dirge is sung, and just before the corpse is deposited in the grave, the coffin is opened, and a small bag of earth, taken from the grave, is carefully put under the head of the deceased; then some powder, said to be earth brought from Jerusalem, and carefully kept for this purpose, is taken and put upon the eyes of the corpse, in token of their remembrance of the holy land, and of their expectations of returning thither in God's appointed time. Whether this custom is universal among the Jews, is not known.†

They generally expect a glorious return to the Holy Land, when they shall be exalted above all the nations of the earth. And they flatter themselves that the period of their return will speedily arrive, though they do not venture to fix the precise time.

The whole number of persons who profess the Jewish religion, in all parts of the world, is supposed to be about three millions, who, as their phrase is, are witnesses of the unity of God in all the nations in the world.

Besides the religious sects enumerated, there are a few of the German inhabitants in Pennsylvania, who are styled SWINSELDIANS, and, in Maryland, a small number

* H. Adams's "View of Religions." Article *Shakers*.

† For the articles of their faith, &c. see H. Adams's "View of Religions," Article *Jews*, page 290.

called NICOLITES or NEW QUAKERS; but with the distinguishing sentiments of these sects I am not acquainted.

HISTORY.] In addition to what we have already said of the discovery and settlement of North America, we shall here give a brief history of the late war with Great Britain, with a sketch of the events which preceded and prepared the way for the revolution. This general view of the history of the United States will serve as a suitable introduction to the particular histories of the several States, which will be given in their proper places.

America was originally peopled by uncivilized nations, who lived mostly by hunting and fishing. The Europeans, who first visited these shores, treating the natives as wild beasts of the forest, which have no property in the woods where they roam, planted the standard of their respective masters, where they first landed, and in their names claimed the country by *right of discovery*.* Prior to any settlement in North America, numerous titles of this kind were acquired by the English, French, Spanish, and Dutch navigators, who came hither for the purposes of fishing and trading with the natives. Slight as such titles were, they were afterwards the causes of contention between the European nations. The subjects of different princes often laid claim to the same tract of country, because both had discovered the same river or promontory; or because the extent of their respective claims was undetermined.

While the settlements in this vast uncultivated country were inconsiderable and scattered, and the trade of it confined to the bartering of a few trinkets for furs, a trade carried on by a few adventurers, the interfering of claims produced no important controversy among the settlers or the nations of Europe. But in proportion to the progress of population, and the growth of the American trade, the jealousies of the nations, which had made early discoveries and settlements on this coast, were alarmed; ancient claims were revived; and each power took measures to extend and secure its own possessions at the expence of a rival.

By the treaty of Utrecht in 1713, the English claimed a right of cutting logwood in the Bay of Campeachy, in South America. In the exercise of this right, the English merchants had frequent opportunities of carrying on a contraband trade with the Spanish settlements on the continent. To remedy this evil, the Spaniards resolved to annihilate a claim, which, though often acknowledged, had never been clearly ascertained. To effect this design they captured the English vessels, which they found along the Spanish Main, and many of the British subjects were doomed to work in the mines of Potosi.

Repeated severities of this kind at length (1739) produced a war between England and Spain. Porto Bello was taken from the Spaniards by Admiral Vernon. Commodore Anson, with a squadron of ships, sailed to the South Seas, distressed the Spanish settlements on the western shore of America, and took a galleon laden with immense riches. But in 1741, a formidable armament, destined to attack Carthagena, under the command of Lord Cathcart, returned unsuccessful, with the loss of upwards of twelve thousand British soldiers and seamen; and the defeat of the expedition raised a clamour against the minister, Sir Robert Walpole, which produced a change in the administration. This change removed the scene of war to Europe, so that America was not immediately affected by the subsequent transactions, except that

* As well may the New Zealanders, who have not yet discovered Europe, fit out a ship, land on the coast of England or France, and, finding no inhabitants but poor fishermen and peasants, claim the whole country by *right of discovery*.

Louisburgh, the principal fortress of Cape Breton, was taken from the French by General Pepperell, assisted by Commodore Warren and a body of New England troops.*

This war was ended in 1748, by the treaty of peace signed at Aix la Chapelle, by which restitution was made, on both sides, of all places during the war.

Peace however was of short duration. The French possessed Canada, and had made considerable settlements in Florida, claiming the country on both sides of the Mississippi, by right of discovery. To secure and extend their claims, they established a line of forts from Canada to Florida. They had secured the important pass at Niagara, and erected a fort at the junction of the Allegany and Monongahela rivers, called Fort Du Quesne. They took pains to secure the friendship and assistance of the natives; encroachments were made upon the English possessions, and mutual injuries succeeded. The disputes among the settlers in America, and the measures taken by the French to command all the trade of the St. Lawrence river on the north, and of the Mississippi on the south, excited a jealousy in the English nation, which soon broke forth in open war.

The next year three other expeditions were undertaken in America against the French. One was conducted by General Monckton, who had orders to drive the French from their encroachments on the province of Nova Scotia. This expedition was attended with success. General Johnson was ordered with a body of troops to take possession of Crown Point, but he did not succeed. General Shirley commanded an expedition against the fort at Niagara, but lost the season by delay.

In 1755, General Braddock marched against fort Du Quesne, but in penetrating through the wilderness, he incautiously fell into an ambuscade, and suffered a total defeat. General Braddock was killed, but the enemy not pursuing the vanquished across the river, being eager in plundering the baggage of the dead, a part of his troops were saved by flight under the conduct of General Washington, at that time a colonel, who then began to exhibit proofs of those military talents, by which he afterwards conducted the armies of America to victory, and his country to independence.

The ill success of these expeditions left the English settlements in America exposed to the depredations of both the French and Indians. But the war now raged in Europe and the East Indies, and engaged the attention of both nations in those quarters.

It was not until the campaign in 1758, that affairs assumed a more favourable aspect in America. But upon a change of administration, Mr. Pitt was appointed prime minister, and the operations of war became more vigorous and successful. General Amherst was sent to take possession of Cape Breton; and after a warm siege, the garrison of Louisburgh surrendered by capitulation. General Forbes was successful in taking possession of Fort Du Quesne, which the French thought fit to abandon. But General Abercrombie, who commanded the troops destined to act against the French at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, attacked the lines at Ticonderoga, and was defeated with a terrible slaughter of his troops. After his defeat, he returned to his camp at Lake George.

The next year, more effectual measures were taken to subdue the French in America. General Prideaux and Sir William Johnston began the operations of the campaign by taking the French fort near Niagara.† General Amherst took possession of the forts at Crown Point and Ticonderoga, which the French had abandoned.

* See page 117.

† General Prideaux was killed by the bursting of a mortar before the surrender of the French.

But the decisive blow which proved fatal to the French interests in America, was the defeat of the French army, and the taking of Quebec, by the brave General Wolfe. This hero was slain in the beginning of the action on the plains of Abram, and Monsieur Montcalm, the French commander, likewise lost his life. The loss of Québec was soon followed by the capture of Montreal, by General Amherst, and Canada has remained ever since in possession of the English.

Colonel Grant, in 1761, defeated the Cherokees in Carolina, and obliged them to sue for peace. The next year Martinico was taken by Admiral Rodney and General Monckton; and also the island of Grenada, St. Vincents, and others. The capture of these was soon followed by the surrender of the Havannah, the capital of the island of Cuba.

In 1763, a definitive treaty of peace was concluded at Paris, between Great Britain, France, and Spain; by which the English ceded to the French several islands which they had taken from them in the West Indies, but were confirmed in the possession of all North America on this side the Mississippi, except the island of Orleans.

But this war, however brilliant the successes and glorious the event, proved the cause of great and unexpected misfortunes to Great Britain. Engaged with the combined powers of France and Spain, during several years, her exertions were suprising and her expense immense. To discharge the debts of the nation, the parliament was obliged to have recourse to new expedients for raising money. Previous to the last treaty in 1763, the parliament had been satisfied to raise a revenue from the American colonies by a monopoly of their trade.

It will be proper here to observe, that there were four kinds of government established in the British American Colonies. The first was a charter government, by which the powers of legislation were vested in a governor, council, and assembly, chosen by the people. Of this kind were the governments of Connecticut and Rhode Island. The second was a proprietary government, in which the proprietor of the province was governor; although he generally resided abroad, and administered the government by a deputy of his own appointment; the assembly only being chosen by the people. Such were the governments of Pennsylvania and Maryland; and originally of New Jersey and Carolina. The third kind was that of royal government, where the governor and council were appointed by the crown, and the assembly by the people. Of this kind were the governments of New Hampshire, New York, New Jersey, (after the year 1702) Virginia, the Carolinas, after the resignation of the proprietors, in 1728, and Georgia. The fourth kind was that of Massachusetts, which differed from all the rest. The governor was appointed by the king; so far it was a royal government; but the members of the council were elected by the representatives of the people. The governor, however, had a right to negative a certain number, but not to fill up vacancies thus occasioned. This variety of governments created different degrees of dependence on the crown. In the royal government, to render a law valid, it was constitutionally required that it should be ratified by the king; but the charter governments were empowered to enact laws and no ratification by the king was necessary. It was only required that such laws should not be contrary to the laws of England. The charter of Connecticut is express to this purpose.

At the beginning of the last war with France, commissioners from many of the colonies had assembled at Albany, and proposed that a great council should be formed by deputies from the several colonies, which, with a general governor to be appointed by the crown, should be empowered to take measures for the common safety, and to raise money for the execution of their designs. This proposal was not relished by the

British ministry ; but in place of this plan, it was proposed, that the governors of the colonies, with the assistance of one or two of their council, should assemble and concert measures for the general defence ; erect forts, levy troops, and draw on the treasury of England for monies that should be wanted ; but the treasury to be reimbursed by a tax on the colonies, to be laid by the English parliament. To this plan, which would imply an avowal of the right of parliament to tax the colonies, the provincial assemblies objected with unshaken firmness. It seems therefore that the British parliament, *before* the war, had it in contemplation to exercise the right they claimed of taxing the colonies at pleasure, without permitting them to be represented. Indeed it is obvious that they laid hold of the alarming situation of the colonies, about the year 1754 and 1755, to force them into an acknowledgement of the right, or to the adoption of measures that might afterwards be drawn into precedent. The colonies, however, with an uncommon foresight and firmness, defeated all their attempts. The war was carried on by requisitions on the colonies for supplies of men and money, or by voluntary contributions.

But no sooner was peace concluded, than the English parliament resumed the plan of taxing the colonies ; and to justify their attempts, said, that the money to be raised, was to be appropriated to defray the expense of defending them in the late war.

The first attempt to raise a revenue in America appeared in the memorable *stamp act*, passed March 22, 1765 ; by which it was enacted that certain instruments of writing, as bills, bonds, &c. should not be valid in law, unless drawn on stamped paper, on which a duty was laid. When this bill was brought in, Mr. Charles Townsend concluded a speech in its favour, with words to the following effect, “ And now, will these Americans, children planted by our care, nourished up by our indulgence, till they are grown to a degree of strength and opulence, and protected by our arms, will they grudge to contribute their mite to relieve us from the heavy weight of that burden which we lie under ? ” To which Colonel Barre replied. “ They planted by your care ! No, your oppressions planted them in America. They fled from tyranny to a then uncultivated and inhospitable country, where they exposed themselves to almost all the hardships to which human nature is liable ; and among others to the cruelty of a savage foe, the most subtle, and I will take upon me to say, the most formidable of any people upon the face of God’s earth ; and yet, actuated by principles of true English liberty, they met all hardships with pleasure, compared with those who suffered in their own country, from the hands of those who should have been their friends.—They nourished up by your indulgence ! They grew by your neglect of them. As soon as you began to care about them, that care was exercised in sending persons to rule them in one department and another, who were perhaps the deputies of deputies to some members of this house, sent to spy out their liberties, to misrepresent their actions and to prey upon them.—Men whose behaviour, on many occasions, has caused the blood of those sons of liberty to recoil within them.—Men promoted to the highest seats of justice, some, who to my knowledge were glad, by going to a foreign country, to escape being brought to the bar of a court of justice in their own.—They protected by your arms ! They have nobly taken up arms in your defence, have exerted a valour amidst their constant and laborious industry, for the defence of a country whose frontier was drenched in blood, while its interior parts yielded all its little savings to your emolument ; and believe me, remember I this day told you so, that the same spirit of freedom which actuated that people at first, will accompany them still : but prudence forbids me to explain myself farther. God knows, I do not at this time speak from any motives of party heat ; what I deliver are the genuine sentiments of my heart..

However

However superior to me in general knowledge and experience, the respectable body of this house may be, yet I claim to know more of America than most of you, having seen and been conversant in that country. The people I believe are as truly loyal as any subjects the king has, but a people jealous of their liberties, and who *will* vindicate them, if ever they should be violated: but the subject is too delicate—I will say no more.”

No sooner was this act published in America, than it raised a general alarm. The people were filled with apprehensions at an act which they supposed to be an attack on their constitutional rights. The colonies petitioned the king and parliament for a redress of the grievance, and formed associations for the purpose of preventing the importation and use of British manufactures, until the act should be repealed. This spirited and unanimous opposition of the Americans produced the desired effect; and on the 18th of March, 1766, the stamp act was repealed. The news of the repeal was received in the colonies with universal joy, and the trade between them and Great Britain was renewed on the most liberal footing.

The parliament, by repealing this act so obnoxious to their American brethren, did not intend to lay aside the scheme of raising a revenue in the colonies, but merely to change the mode. Accordingly the next year, they passed an act, laying a certain duty on glass, tea, paper, and painters colours; articles which were much wanted, and not manufactured in America. This act kindled the resentment of the Americans, and excited a general opposition to the measure; so that parliament thought proper, in 1770, to take off these duties, except three-pence a pound on tea. Yet this duty, however trifling, kept alive the jealousy of the colonists, and their opposition to parliamentary taxation continued and increased.

But it must be remembered that the inconvenience of paying the duty was not the sole, nor principal cause of the opposition; it was the *principle*, which, once admitted, would have subjected the colonies to unlimited parliamentary taxation, without the privilege of being represented. The *right*, abstractly considered, was denied; and the smallest attempt to establish the claim by precedent, was uniformly resisted. The Americans could not be deceived as to the views of parliament; for the repeal of the stamp act was accompanied with an unequivocal declaration, ‘that the parliament had a right to make laws of sufficient validity, to bind the colonies in all cases whatsoever.’

The colonies therefore entered into measures to encourage their own manufactures, and home productions, and to retrench the use of foreign superfluities; while the importation of tea was prohibited. In the royal and proprietary governments, and in Massachusetts, the governors and people were in a state of continual warfare. Assemblies were repeatedly called, and suddenly dissolved. While sitting, the assemblies employed the time in stating grievances and framing remonstrances. To inflame these discontents, an act of parliament was passed, ordaining that the governors and judges should receive their salaries of the crown; thus making them independent of the provincial assemblies, and removeable only at the pleasure of the king.

These arbitrary proceedings, with many others not here mentioned,* could not fail of producing a rupture.

On the second of March, a fray took place in Boston, near Mr. Gray’s ropewalk, between a private soldier of the 29th regiment, and an inhabitant. The former was

* See an enumeration of grievances in the “Act of Independence,” and in a variety of petitions to the king and parliament.

supported by his comrades, the latter by the rope-makers, till several on both sides were involved in the consequences. On the fifth a more dreadful scene was presented. The soldiers, when under arms, were pressed upon, insulted and pelted by a mob armed with clubs, sticks, and snowballs covering stones. They were also dared to fire. In this situation, one of the soldiers who had received a blow, in resentment fired at the supposed aggressor. This was followed by a single discharge from six others. Three of the inhabitants were killed, and five were dangerously wounded. The town was immediately in commotion. Such was the temper, force, and number of the inhabitants, that nothing but an engagement to remove the troops out of the town, together with the advice of moderate men, prevented the townsmen from falling on the soldiers. The killed were buried in one vault, and in a most respectful manner, in order to express the indignation of the inhabitants at the slaughter of their brethren, by soldiers quartered among them, in violation of their civil liberties. Capt. Preston, who commanded the party which fired on the inhabitants, was committed to jail, and afterwards tried. The captain, and six of the men, were acquitted. Two were brought in guilty of man-slaughter. It appeared on the trial, that the soldiers were abused, insulted, threatened and pelted, before they fired. It was also proved, that only seven guns were fired by the eight prisoners. These circumstances induced the jury to make a favourable verdict. The result of the trial reflected great honour on John Adams, and Josiah Quincy, Esqrs. the counsel for the prisoners; and also on the integrity of the jury, who ventured to give an upright verdict, in defiance of popular opinions.

The consequences of this tragical event sunk deep in the minds of the people, and were made subservient to important purposes. The anniversary of it was observed with great solemnity for 13 years. Eloquent orators were successively employed to deliver an annual oration to preserve the remembrance of it fresh in their minds. On these occasions the blessings of liberty—the horrors of slavery—the dangers of a standing army—the rights of the colonies, and a variety of such topics, were represented to the public view under their most pleasing and alarming forms. These annual orations administered fuel to the fire of liberty, and kept it burning, with an incessant flame.*

In 1773, the spirit of the Americans broke out into open violence. The *Gaspée*, an armed schooner belonging to his Britannic Majesty, had been stationed at Providence, in Rhode Island, to prevent smuggling. The vigilance of the commander irritated the inhabitants to that degree, that about two hundred armed men entered the vessel at night, compelled the officers and men to go ashore, and set fire to the schooner. A reward of five hundred pounds, offered by government for apprehending any of the persons concerned in this daring act, produced no effectual discovery.

About this time, the discovery and publication of some private confidential letters, written by the royal officers in Boston, to persons in office in England, served to confirm the apprehensions of the Americans, with respect to the designs of the British government. It was now made obvious that more effectual measures would be taken to establish the supremacy of the British Parliament over the colonies. The letters recommended decisive measures, and the writers were charged, by the exasperated Americans, with betraying their trust and the people they governed.

As the resolutions of the colonies not to import or consume tea, had, in a great measure, deprived the English government of a revenue from this quarter, the parliament formed a scheme of introducing tea into America, under cover of the East

* See Ramsay's History of the American Revolution, p. 90. Printed for J. Stockdale.

India Company. For this purpose an act was passed, enabling the company to export all sorts of teas, duty free, to any place whatever. The company departed from their usual mode of doing business, and became their own exporters. Several ships were freighted with teas, and sent to the American colonies, and factors were appointed to receive and dispose of their cargoes.

The Americans, determined to oppose the revenue system of the English parliament in every possible shape, considered the attempt of the East India Company to evade the resolutions of the colonies, and dispose of teas in America, as an indirect mode of taxation, sanctioned by the authority of parliament. The people assembled in various places, and in the large commercial towns, took measures to prevent the landing of the teas. Committees were appointed, and armed with extensive powers to inspect merchants books, to propose tests, and to make use of other expedients to frustrate the designs of the East India Company. The same spirit pervaded the people from New Hampshire to Georgia. In some places, the consignees of the teas were intimidated so far as to relinquish their appointments, or to enter into engagements not to act in that capacity. The cargo sent to South Carolina was stored, the consignees being restrained from offering the tea for sale. In other provinces, the ships returned back without discharging their cargoes.

It was otherwise in Massachusetts. The tea ships designed for the supply of Boston were consigned to the son, cousins, and particular friends of Governor Hutchinson. When they were called upon to resign, they answered, "That it was out of their power." The collector refused to give a clearance, unless the vessels were discharged of dutiable articles. The governor refused to give a pass for the vessels, unless properly qualified from the custom-house. The governor likewise requested Admiral Montague to guard the passages out of the harbour, and gave orders to suffer no vessels, coasters excepted, to pass the fortrefs, from the town, without a pass signed by himself. From a combination of these circumstances, the return of the tea vessels from Boston was rendered impossible. The inhabitants then had no alternative, but to prevent the landing of the tea, or to suffer it to be landed, and depend on the unanimity of the people not to purchase it, or to destroy the tea, or to suffer a deep laid scheme against their sacred liberties to take effect. The first would have required incessant watching by night, as well as by day, for a period of time, the duration of which no one could compute. The second would have been visionary to childishness, by suspending the liberties of a growing country, on the self-denial and discretion of every tea drinker in the province. They viewed the tea as a vehicle of an unconstitutional tax, and as inseparably associated with it. To avoid the one they resolved to destroy the other. About seventeen persons, dressed as Indians, repaired to the tea ships, broke open 342 chests of tea, and without doing any other damage, discharged their contents into the water.*

No sooner did the news of this destruction of the tea reach Great Britain, than the parliament determined to punish that devoted town. On the king's laying the American papers before them, a bill was brought in and passed, to "discontinue the landing and discharging, lading and shipping of goods, wares, and merchandizes, at the town of Boston, or within the harbour."

This act, passed March 25, 1774, and called *The Boston Port Bill*, threw the inhabitants into the greatest consternation. The town of Boston passed a resolution, expressing their sense of this oppressive measure, and a desire that all the colonies would concur to stop all importations from Great Britain. Most of the colonies entered into spirited

* Ramsay's History, p. 99.

spirited resolutions on this occasion, to unite with Massachusetts in a firm opposition to the unconstitutional measures of the parliament. The first of June, the day on which the Port Bill was to take place, was appointed to be kept as a day of humiliation, fasting and prayer throughout the colonies, to seek the Divine direction and aid, in that critical and gloomy juncture of affairs.

It ought here to be observed, that this rational and pious custom of observing fasts in times of distress and impending danger, and of celebrating days of public thanksgiving, after having received special tokens of Divine favour, has ever prevailed in New England since its first settlement, and in some parts of other States. These public supplications and acknowledgements to heaven at the commencement of hostilities, and during the whole progress of the war, were more frequent than usual, and were attended with uncommon fervour and solemnity. They were considered by the people, as an humble appeal to heaven for the justice of their cause, and designed to manifest their dependence on the God of Hosts for aid and success in maintaining it against their hostile brethren. The prayers and public discourses of the clergy, who were friends to their suffering country, (and there were very few who were not) breathed the spirit of patriotism; and as their piety and integrity had generally secured to them the confidence of the people, they had great influence and success in encouraging them to engage in its defence. In this way, that class of citizens aided the cause of their country; and to their pious exertions, under the GREAT ARBITER of human affairs, has been justly ascribed no inconsiderable share of the success and victory that crowned the American arms.

During the height of the consternation and confusion which the Boston Port Bill occasioned, and at the very time when a town meeting was sitting to consider of it, General Gage, who had been appointed to the government of Massachusetts, arrived in the harbour. His arrival, however, did not allay the popular ferment, or check the progress of the measures then taking, to unite the colonies in opposition to the oppressive acts of parliament. He was received with all the honours usual on such occasions.

But the Port Bill was not the only act that alarmed the apprehensions of the Americans. Determined to compel the province of Massachusetts to submit to their laws, parliament passed an act for "The better regulating government in the province of Massachusetts Bay." The object of this act was to alter the government, as it stood on the charter of King William; and to make the judges and sheriffs dependent on the king, and removeable at his will and pleasure.

This act was soon followed by another, which ordained that any person, indicted for murder, or other capital offence, committed in aiding the magistrates in executing the laws, might be sent by the governor, either to any other colony, or to Great Britain, for his trial.

This was soon followed by the Quebec Bill, which extended the bounds of that province, and granted many privileges to the Roman Catholics. The object of this bill was, to secure the attachment of that province to the crown of England, and prevent its joining the colonies in their resistance of the laws of parliament.

But these measures did not intimidate the Americans. On the other hand, they served to confirm their former apprehensions of the evil designs of government, and to unite the colonies in their opposition. A correspondence of opinion with respect to the unconstitutional acts of parliament, produced an uniformity of proceedings in the colonies. The people generally concurred in a proposition for holding a congress, by deputation from the several colonies, in order to concert measures for the preservation

of their rights. Deputies were accordingly appointed, and met at Philadelphia, on the 26th of October, 1774.

In this first congress, the proceedings were cool, deliberate, and loyal; but marked with unanimity and firmness. Their first act was a declaration, or state of their claims, as to the enjoyment of all the rights of British subjects, and particularly that of taxing themselves exclusively, and of regulating the internal police of the colonies. They also drew up a petition to the king, complaining of their grievances, and praying for a repeal of the unconstitutional and oppressive acts of parliament. They signed an association to suspend the importation of British goods, and the exportation of American produce, until their grievances should be redressed. They sent an address to the inhabitants of Great Britain, and another to the people of America; in the former of which they enumerated the oppressive steps of parliament, and called on their British brethren not to aid the ministry in enslaving their American subjects; and in the latter, they endeavoured to confirm the people in a spirited and unanimous determination to defend their constitutional rights.

In the mean time every thing in Massachusetts wore the appearance of opposition by force. A new council for the governor had been appointed by the crown. New Judges were appointed and attempted to proceed in the execution of their office; but the juries refused to be sworn under them. In some counties, the people assembled to prevent the courts from proceeding to business; and in Berkshire they succeeded, setting an example of resistance that has since been followed, in violation of the laws of the State.

In this situation of affairs, the day for the annual muster of the militia approached. General Gage, apprehensive of some violence, had the precaution to seize the magazines of ammunition and stores at Cambridge and Charlestown, and lodged them in Boston. This measure, with the fortifying of the neck of land which joins Boston to the main land at Roxbury, caused an universal alarm and ferment.

On this occasion, an assembly of delegates from all the towns in Suffolk county was called; and several spirited resolutions were agreed to. These resolutions were prefaced with a declaration of allegiance; but they breathed a spirit of freedom that does honour to the delegates. They declared that the late acts of parliament, and the proceedings of General Gage, were glaring infractions of their rights and liberties, which their duty called them to defend by all lawful means.

This assembly remonstrated against the fortification of Boston Neck, and against the Quebec Bill; and resolved upon a suspension of commerce, an encouragement of arts and manufactures, the holding of a provincial congress, and a submission to the measures which should be recommended by the continental congress. They recommended that the collectors of taxes should not pay any money into the treasury without further orders; they also recommended peace and good order, as they meant to act merely upon the defensive.

In answer to their remonstrance, General Gage assured them that he had no intention to prevent the free egress and regress of the inhabitants to and from the town of Boston, and that he would not suffer any person under his command to injure the person or property of any of his Majesty's subjects.

Previous to this, a general assembly had been summoned by the governor to meet at Salem; and notwithstanding the writs had been countermanded by the governor's proclamation, on account of the violence of the times, and the resignation of several of the new counsellors, yet in defiance of the proclamation, 90 of the newly-elected members met at the time and place appointed; and soon after resolved themselves into a

Provincial

Provincial Congress and adjourned to Concord, 19 miles from Boston, and after choosing Mr. Hancock president, proceeded to business.

The congress addressed the governor with a rehearsal of their distresses, and took the necessary steps for defending their rights. They regulated the militia, made provision for supplying the treasury, and furnishing the people with arms; and such was the enthusiasm and union of the people, that the recommendations of the provincial congress had the force of laws.

General Gage was incensed at these measures. He declared in his answer to the address, that Britain could never harbour the black design of enslaving her subjects, and published a proclamation, in which he insinuated that such proceedings amounted to rebellion. He also ordered barracks to be erected for the soldiers; but he found difficulty in procuring labourers, either in Boston or New York.

In the beginning of 1775, the fishery bills were passed in parliament, by which the colonies were prohibited to trade with Great Britain, Ireland, or the West Indies, or to take fish on the banks of Newfoundland.

In the distresses to which these acts of parliament reduced the town of Boston, the unanimity of the colonies was remarkable, in the large supplies of provision furnished by the inhabitants of different towns from New Hampshire to Georgia, and shipped to the relief of the sufferers.

Preparations began to be made, to oppose by force the execution of these acts of parliament. The militia of the country were trained to the use of arms—great encouragement was given for the manufacture of gunpowder, and measures were taken to obtain all kinds of military stores.

In February, Colonel Leslie was sent with a detachment of troops from Boston, to take possession of some cannon at Salem. But the people had intelligence of the design—took up the draw-bridge in that town, and prevented the troops from passing, until the cannon were secured; so that the expedition failed.

Provisions and military stores were also collected and stored in different places, particularly at Concord. General Gage, though zealous for his royal master's interest, discovered a prevailing desire after a peaceable accommodation. He wished to prevent hostilities by depriving the inhabitants of the means necessary for carrying them on. With this view,* he determined to destroy the stores which he knew were collected for the support of a provincial army; and wishing to accomplish this without bloodshed, he took every precaution to effect it by surprise, and without alarming the country. At eleven o'clock at night 800 grenadiers and light infantry, the flower of the royal army, embarked at the common, landed at Leechmore's Point and marched for Concord, under the command of Lieutenant-colonel Smith. Neither the secrecy with which this expedition was planned—the privacy with which the troops marched out, nor an order that no inhabitant should leave Boston, were sufficient to prevent intelligence from being sent to the country militia of what was going on. About two in the morning, 130 of the Lexington militia had assembled to oppose them, but the air being chilly, and intelligence respecting the regulars uncertain, they were dismissed, with orders to appear again at the beat of drum. They collected a second time, to the number of 70, between 4 and 5 o'clock in the morning, and the British regulars soon after made their appearance. Major Pitcairn, who led the advanced corps, rode up to them and called out, "Disperse, you rebels; throw down your arms and disperse." They still continued in a

* It is believed that another object of this expedition was, to seize on the persons of Messrs. Hancock and S. Adams, who by their spirited exertions had rendered themselves obnoxious to General Gage.

body, on which he advanced nearer—discharged his pistol—and ordered his soldiers to fire. A dispersion of the militia was the consequence, but the firing of the regulars was nevertheless continued. Individuals finding they were fired upon, though dispersing, returned the fire. Three or four of the militia were killed on the green. A few more were shot after they had begun to disperse. The royal detachment proceeded on to Concord, and executed their commission. They disabled two 24 pounders—threw 500lb. of ball into rivers and wells, and broke in pieces about 60 barrels of flour. Mr. John Buterick, major of a minute regiment, not knowing what had passed at Lexington, ordered his men not to give the first fire, that they might not be the aggressors. Upon his approaching near the regulars, they fired, and killed Captain Isaac Davis, and one private of the provincial minute men. The fire was returned, and a skirmish ensued. The king's troops having done their business, began their retreat towards Boston. This was conducted with expedition, for the adjacent inhabitants had assembled in arms and began to attack them in every direction. In their return to Lexington they were exceedingly annoyed, both by those who pressed on their rear, and others who poured in from all sides, firing from behind stone walls, and such like coverts, which supplied the place of lines and redoubts. At Lexington the regulars were joined by a detachment of 900 men under Lord Percy, which had been sent out by General Gage to support Lieutenant-colonel Smith. This reinforcement, having two pieces of cannon, awed the provincials, and kept them at a greater distance; but they continued a constant, though irregular and scattering fire, which did great execution. The close firing from behind the walls by good marksmen, put the regular troops in no small confusion, but they nevertheless kept up a brisk retreating fire on the militia and minute men. A little after sunset the regulars reached Bunker's-hill, worn down with excessive fatigue, having marched that day between thirty and forty miles. On the next day they crossed Charlestown ferry, to Boston.

There never were more than 400 provincials engaged at one time, and often not so many. As some tired and gave out, others came up and took their places. There was scarcely any discipline observed among them. Officers and privates fired when they were ready and saw a royal uniform, without waiting for the word of command. Their knowledge of the country enabled them to gain opportunities, by crossing fields and fences, and to act as flanking parties against the king's troops, who kept to the main road.

The regulars had 65 killed, 174 wounded, and 24 made prisoners. Of the provincials 49 were killed, and 39 wounded and missing.

Here was spilt the *first blood* in the late war; a war which severed America from the British empire. *Lexington* opened the first scene to this great drama, which, in its progress, exhibited the most illustrious characters and events, and closed with a revolution, equally glorious for the actors, and important in its consequences to mankind.

This battle roused all America. The Provincial Congress of Massachusetts being at this time in session, voted that "An army of 30,000 men be immediately raised; that 13,600 be of their own province, and that a letter and delegate be sent to the several colonies of New Hampshire, Connecticut, and Rhode Island." The militia collected from all quarters, and Boston, in a few days, was besieged by twenty thousand men. A stop was put to all intercourse between the town and country, and the inhabitants were reduced to great want of provisions. General Gage promised to let the people depart, if they would deliver up their arms. The people complied; but when the general had obtained their arms, he refused to let the people go.

This

This breach of faith, and the consequences that attended it, were justly and greatly complained of; and although many, at different times, were permitted to leave the town, they were obliged to leave all their effects behind: so that many who had been used to live in ease and affluence, were at once reduced to extreme indigence and misery. A circumstance peculiarly and wantonly aggravating, and which was the ground of the bitterest complaints of congress, was, that passports were granted and retained in such a manner, as that families were broken, and the dearest connections separated; part being compelled to quit the town, and part cruelly retained against their inclination.

About the latter end of May a great part of the reinforcements ordered from Great Britain arrived at Boston. Three British Generals, Howe, Burgoyne, and Clinton, whose behaviour in the preceding war had gained them great reputation, also arrived about the same time. General Gage, thus reinforced, prepared for acting with more decision; but before he proceeded to extremities, he conceived it due to ancient forms to issue a proclamation, holding forth to the inhabitants the alternative of peace or war. He therefore offered pardon in the king's name, to all who should forthwith lay down their arms, and return to their respective occupations and peaceable duties, excepting only from the benefit of that pardon "Samuel Adams and John Hancock," whose offences were said to be "of too flagitious a nature to admit of any other consideration than that of condign punishment." He also proclaimed, that not only the persons above named and excepted, but also all their adherents, associates, and correspondents should be deemed guilty of treason and rebellion, and treated accordingly. By this proclamation it was also declared, "that as the courts of judicature were shut, martial law should take place, till a due course of justice should be re-established." It was supposed that this proclamation was a prelude to hostilities, and preparations were accordingly made by the Americans. The heights of Charlestown were so situated as to make the possession of them a matter of great consequence to either of the contending parties. Orders were therefore issued, June 16th, by the provincial commanders, that a detachment of a thousand men should intrench upon Breed's-hill.* Here the Americans, between midnight and morning, with uncommon expedition and silence, threw up a small redoubt, which the British did not discover till the morning of the 17th, when they began an incessant firing and continued it till afternoon. With the intrepidity of veteran soldiers the Americans bore this fire, and proceeded to finish their redoubt, and to throw up a breast-work, extending eastward of it to the bottom of the hill. About noon General Gage detached Major-general Howe and Brigadier-general Pigot, with the flower of his army, in two detachments, amounting in the whole to nearly 3000 men.—They landed at a point about 150 or 200 rods S. E. of the redoubt, and deliberately prepared for the attack. While the troops, who first landed, were waiting for a reinforcement, the Americans on the left wing, towards Mystic river, for their security, pulled up some adjoining post and rail fence, and set it down in two parallel lines, near each other, and filled the space between with hay, which the day before was mowed and remained in the adjacent field. The British troops, in the mean time formed in two lines, and about 3 o'clock advanced slowly towards the Americans. The hills and steeples in Boston, and the circumjacent country, were crowded with anxious spectators of the dubious conflict. While some felt for the honour of the British troops, multitudes, with a keener sensibility, felt for the liberties of a great and growing country. The attack commenced on the part of the British troops. The Americans had the precaution to

* Historians, through mistake, have called the hill where the battle was fought, *Bunker's-hill*, which is a quarter of a mile north of Breed's-hill, where the battle was fought.

reserve their fire, till their enemies had approached within 10 or 12 rods of their works. They then began a well-directed and furious discharge of small arms, which mowed down their enemies in ranks, and occasioned a disorderly and precipitate retreat. Their officers rallied them with difficulty, and pushed them forward with their swords to a second attack. They were in the same manner put to flight a second time. With still greater difficulty they were forced by General Howe to a third attack. By this time the powder of the Americans began to fail, and their redoubt was attacked on two sides. Under these circumstances, a retreat was ordered; the left wing of the Americans, N. E. of the redoubt, still continuing their fire, ignorant of what had taken place on the right, till the British had nearly surrounded them. The retreat was effected, with an inconsiderable loss, considering the greater part of the distance they had to pass was completely exposed to the incessant fire of the Glasgow man of war and two floating batteries.

During the heat of this bloody action, by order of General Gage, Charlestown was set on fire by a battery on Cops-hill, in Boston, and a party from the Somerset man of war lying in Charles river, and nearly 400 houses, including six public buildings, were consumed, with their furniture, &c. valued by 19 men under oath, at £156,900, specie; and 2000 persons reduced from affluence and mediocrity, to the most aggravated poverty and exile.*

The number of Americans engaged in this memorable action amounted to 1500 only. There have been few battles in modern wars in which, all circumstances considered, there was a greater slaughter of men than in this short engagement. The loss of the British, as acknowledged by General Gage, amounted to 1054 men. Nineteen commissioned officers were killed and 70 wounded. The loss of the Americans was 77 killed—278 wounded and missing.

The death of Major-general Warren, who four days before had received his commission, and who, having had no command assigned him, fought this day as a volunteer, was particularly and greatly lamented. "To the purest patriotism, and the most undaunted bravery, he added the virtues of domestic life, the eloquence of an accomplished orator, and the wisdom of an able statesman."

About this time a scheme was laid by a number of gentlemen in Connecticut, to take possession of Ticonderoga, where a great quantity of military stores were lodged, and which is the key to Canada. Having made the necessary preparations, and collected 270 men, chiefly *Green Mountain boys*, they rendezvoused at Castleton where they were joined by Col. Allen, and shortly after by Col. Arnold from Cambridge, under commission from the Provincial Congress. Col. Allen commanded this volunteer party. Having arrived at Lake Chaplain, opposite Ticonderoga, in the night, Cols. Allen and Arnold, with 83 men, crossed over, and at the dawn of day entered the fort without resistance, and called upon the commander, who was in bed, to surrender the fort. He asked by what authority? Col. Allen replied—"I demand it in the name of the Great Jehovah and of the Continental Congress."—Thus the fort was captured, with its valuable stores and 48 prisoners. Crown Point was taken at the same time, by Col.

* This pleasant town, (that part of it which was burnt) has since been rebuilt upon an improved plan, and in the fall of 1792, contained, besides a large meeting house, alms house, school house, and a number of stores and other buildings, about 215 dwelling houses, inhabited by 234 families. The whole number of souls was 1254, of which 220 were males of 21 years and upwards. The number of males of upwards of 21 years in this town before the war was 360, of which, in April 1790, 100 only lived in Charlestown, 135 had never returned, 125 had died. In November 1791, there were no less than 139 widows of men who were natives of Charlestown, besides 16 other widows of Charlestown men, not natives, making in the whole 155, of whom 77 were in the town. At this time there were not more than 10 widowers.

Warren, and possession obtained of all Lake Champlain, in the course of a few days, by a few determined men.

On the 15th of June, two days before the memorable battle on Breed's-hill, the Continental Congress unanimously appointed George Washington, Esq;* a native of Virginia,

* Notwithstanding it has often been asserted, with confidence, that *President Washington* was a native of England, certain it is his ancestors came from thence to this country so long ago as the year 1657. He, in the third descent after their migration, was born on the 11th of February, (old style) 1732, at the parish of Washington, in Westmoreland county, in Virginia. His father's family was numerous, and he was the first fruit of a second marriage. His education having been principally conducted by a private tutor, at fifteen years old he was entered a midshipman on board of a British vessel of war stationed on the coast of Virginia, and his baggage prepared for embarkation; but the plan was abandoned on account of the reluctance his mother expressed to his engaging in that profession.

Previous to this transaction, when he was but ten years of age, his father died, and the charge of the family devolved on his eldest brother. His eldest brother, a young man of the most promising talents, had a command in the colonial troops employed against Carthage, and on his return from the expedition, named his new patrimonial mansion MOUNT VERNON, in honour of the admiral of that name, from whom he had received many civilities. He was afterwards made Adjutant-general of the militia of Virginia, but did not long survive. At his decease, the eldest son by the second marriage inherited this seat, and a considerable landed property. In consequence of the extensive limits of the colony, the vacant office of Adjutant-general was divided into three districts, and the *future Hero of America*, before he attained his twentieth year, began his military service by a principal appointment in that department, with the rank of Major.

When he was little more than twenty-one years of age, an event occurred which called his abilities into public notice. In 1753, while the government of the colony was administered by Lieutenant-governor Dinwiddie, encroachments were reported to have been made by the French from Canada, on the territories of the British colonies, at the westward. Mr. Washington, who was sent with plenary powers to ascertain the facts, treat with the savages, and warn the French to desist from their aggressions, performed the duties of his mission with singular industry, intelligence, and address. His journal and report to Governor Dinwiddie, which were published, announced to the world that correctness of mind, manliness in style, and accuracy in mode of doing business, which have since characterised him in the conduct of more arduous affairs. But it was deemed, by some, an extraordinary circumstance that so juvenile and inexperienced a person should have been employed on a negotiation, with which subjects of the greatest importance were involved; subjects, which shortly after became the origin of a war between England and France, that raged for many years throughout every part of the globe.

It would not comport with the intended brevity of this sketch, to mention in detail the fatigues he endured, the plans he suggested, or the system he pursued for the defence of the frontiers, during this war, until the year 1758.

Tranquillity on the frontiers of the middle colonies having been restored, and the health of Colonel Washington having become extremely debilitated by an inveterate pulmonary complaint, in 1759, he resigned his military appointment.

His health was gradually re-established. He married Mrs. Custis,† a handsome and amiable young widow, possessed of an ample jointure; and settled as a planter and farmer on his estate at Mount Vernon, in Fairfax county.

After he left the army, until the year 1775, he cultivated the arts of peace. He was constantly a member of assembly, a magistrate of his county, and a judge of the court. He was elected a delegate to the first Congress in 1774; as well as to that which assembled in the year following. Soon after the war broke out, he was appointed, as we have mentioned, by Congress, Commander in Chief of the forces of the United Colonies.

It is the less necessary to particularize, in this place, his transactions in the course of the late war, because the impression which they made is yet fresh in every mind. But it is hoped posterity will be taught, in what manner he transformed an undisciplined body of peasantry into a regular army of soldiers. Commentaries on his campaigns would undoubtedly be highly interesting and instructive to future generations. The conduct of the first campaign, in compelling the British troops to abandon Boston, by a bloodless victory, will merit a minute narration. But a volume would scarcely contain the mortifications he experienced, and the hazards to which he was exposed, in 1776 and 1777, in contending against the prowess of Britain, with an inadequate force. His good destiny and consummate prudence, prevented want of success from producing want of confidence on the part of the public; for want of success is apt to lead to the adoption of pernicious counsels, through the levity of the people, or the ambition of their demagogues. Shortly after this period, sprang up the only cabal that ever existed during his public life, to rob him of his reputation and command. It proved

† President and Mrs. Washington were both born in the same year.

ginia, to the chief command of the American army. This gentleman had been a distinguished and successful officer in the preceding war, and seem destined by heaven to be the saviour of his country. He accepted the appointment with a diffidence which was a proof of his modesty, his prudence, and his greatness; and by his matchless skill, fortitude, and perseverance, conducted America through indescribable difficulties to independence and peace.

General Washington, with other officers appointed by Congress, arrived at Cambridge, and took command of the American army in July. From this time, the affairs of America began to assume the appearance of a regular and general opposition to the forces of Great Britain.

In autumn, a body of troops, under the command of General Montgomery, besieged and took the garrison at St. John's, which commands the entrance into Canada. The prisoners amounted to about seven hundred. General Montgomery pursued his successes, and took Montreal; and designed to push his victories to Quebec.

A body of troops, commanded by General Arnold, was ordered to march to Canada by the river Kennebec, and through the wilderness. After suffering every hardship, and the most distressing hunger, they arrived in Canada, and were joined by General Montgomery, before Quebec. This city, which was commanded by Governor Carleton, was immediately besieged: but there being little hope of taking the town by a siege, it was determined to storm it.

The garrison of Quebec, at this time, consisted of about 1520 men, of which 800 were militia. The American army consisted of 800 men. General Montgomery having divided his little army into four detachments, ordered two scouts to be made against the upper town, one by Colonel Livingston, at the head of the Canadians, against St. John's Gate; the other by Major Brown against Cape Diamond; reserving to himself and Colonel Arnold, the two principal attacks against the lower town. At

as impotent in effect, as it was audacious in design. In the three succeeding years the germ of discipline unfolded; and the sources of America having been called into co-operation with the land and naval armies of France, produced the glorious campaign in 1781. From this time the gloom began to disappear from our political horizon, and the affairs of the Union proceeded in a meliorating train, till a peace was most ably negotiated by our ambassadors in Europe in 1783.

No person, who had not the advantage of being present when General Washington received the intelligence of peace, and who did not accompany him to his domestic retirement, can describe the relief which that joyful event brought to his labouring mind, or the supreme satisfaction with which he withdrew to private life. From his triumphal entry into New York, upon the evacuation of that city by the British army, to his arrival at Mount Vernon, after the resignation of his commission to Congress, festive crowds impeded his passage through all the populous towns; the devotion of a whole people pursued him with prayers to Heaven for blessings on his head, while their gratitude sought the most expressive language of manifesting itself to him, as their common father and benefactor. When he became a private citizen, he had the unusual felicity to find that his native State was among the most zealous in doing justice to his merits; and that stronger demonstrations of affectionate esteem (if possible) were given by the citizens of his neighbourhood, than by any other description of men on the continent. But he has constantly declined accepting any compensation for his services, or provision for the augmented expences which have been incurred by him in consequence of his public employment, although proposals have been made in the most delicate manner, especially by the States of Virginia and Pennsylvania.

The happiness of private life he did not long enjoy. In 1789, by the unanimous voice of his countrymen, he was called to the dignified office of Chief Magistrate of the United States of America; which office he has ever since sustained; and with how much dignity, prudence, and ability, the general applause of his constituents amply testify. The history of the life, and the delineation of the character of this truly great man, are subjects which will occupy many of the most entertaining and instructive pages of the future impartial histories of America.

While true merit is esteemed, or virtue honoured, mankind will never cease to revere the memory of this Hero; and while gratitude remains in the human-breast, the praises of WASHINGTON shall dwell on every American tongue.

five o'clock in the morning General Montgomery advanced against the lower town: he passed the first barrier, and was just opening to attack the second, when he was killed, together with his Aid-de-camp, Captain M'Pherson. This so dispirited the men, that Colonel Campbell, on whom the command devolved, thought proper to draw them off. In the mean time Colonel Arnold, with 350 men, made a successful attack on another part of the town. In the attack of the first battery, Colonel Arnold was wounded, and was obliged to be carried off the field of battle. His party, however, commanded by Captain Morgan of Virginia, proceeded, and entered the town: but not being joined by the other parties, was obliged to surrender to superior force.

The loss of the Americans in killed and wounded, was about 100, and 300 were taken prisoners. Historians will do justice to the bravery of the Provincial troops on this occasion.

After the defeat, Colonel Arnold, who now commanded the troops, continued some months before Quebec, although his troops were reduced in numbers, and suffered incredibly from cold and sickness.

The death of General Montgomery was greatly and sincerely regretted on both sides. "His many amiable qualities had procured him an uncommon share of private affection, and his great abilities, an equal proportion of public esteem. His name was mentioned in parliament with singular respect: the Minister himself acknowledged his worth, while he reprobated the cause in which he fell. He concluded an involuntary panegyric, by saying, "Curse on his virtues, they have undone his country."*

About this time, the large and flourishing town of Norfolk in Virginia was burnt by order of Lord Dunmore, the then governor of that province.

General Gage went to England in September, and was succeeded in the command by General Howe.

Falmouth, a considerable town in the province of Main, in Massachusetts, shared the fate of Norfolk; being laid in ashes by order of the British admiral.

The British government entered into treaties with some of the German princes for about fourteen thousand men, who were to be sent to America the next year, to assist in subduing the colonies. The parliament also passed an act, forbidding all intercourse with America; and while they repealed the Boston port and fishery bills, they declared all American property on the high seas, forfeited to the captors.

Measures were taken to annoy the enemy in Boston: for this purpose, batteries were opened on several hills, from whence shot and bombs were thrown into the town. But the batteries which were opened on Dorchester point had the best effect, and soon obliged General Howe to abandon the town. In March 1776 the British troops embarked for Halifax, and General Washington entered Boston in triumph.

In the ensuing summer, a small squadron of ships commanded by Sir Peter Parker, and a body of troops under the Generals Clinton and Cornwallis, attempted to take Charleston, the capital of South Carolina. The ships made a violent attack upon the

* General Montgomery descended from a respectable family in the North of Ireland, and was born in the year 1737. His attachment to liberty was innate, and matured by a fine education and an excellent understanding. Having married a wife, and purchased an estate in New York, he was, from these circumstances, as well as from his natural love of freedom, and from a conviction of the justice of her cause, induced to consider himself as an American. From principle, he early embarked in her cause, and quitted the sweets of easy fortune, the enjoyment of a loved and philosophical rural life, with the highest domestic felicity, to take an active share in all the hardships and dangers that attend the soldier's life.

Before he came over to America, he had been an officer in the service of England, and had successfully fought her battles with the immortal Wolfe at Québec, in the war of 1756, on the very spot, where, when fighting under the standard of freedom, he was doomed to fall in arms against her.

fort on Sullivan's Island, but were repulsed with great loss, and the expedition was abandoned.

In July, Congress published their declaration of independence, which separated America from Great Britain. This great event took place two hundred and eighty-four years after the discovery of America by Columbus—one hundred and sixty-six from the first effectual settlement in Virginia, and one hundred and fifty-six from the first settlement of Plymouth in Massachusetts, which were the earliest English settlements in America.

Just after this declaration, General Howe, with a powerful force, arrived near New York, and landed his troops on Staten Island. General Washington was in New York with about thirteen thousand men, who were encamped either in the city or the neighbouring fortifications.

The operations of the British began by the action on Long Island in the month of August. The American Generals Sullivan and Lord Sterling, with a large body of men, were made prisoners. The night after the engagement, a retreat was ordered and executed with such silence, that the Americans left the island without alarming their enemies, and without loss.

In September, the city of New York was abandoned by the American army, and taken by the British.

In November, Fort Washington on York Island was taken, and more than two thousand Americans made prisoners. Fort Mifflin, opposite to Fort Washington, on the Jersey shore, was soon after taken, but the garrison escaped.

About the same time, General Clinton was sent with a body of troops to take possession of Rhode Island, and succeeded. In addition to all these losses and defeats, the American army suffered by desertion, and more by sickness, which was epidemic, and very mortal.

The northern army at Ticonderoga was in a disagreeable situation, particularly after the battle on Lake Champlain, in which the American force, consisting of a few light vessels, under the command of Generals Arnold and Waterbury, was totally dispersed. But General Carleton, instead of pursuing his victory, landed at Crown Point, reconnoitred our posts at Ticonderoga and Mount Independence, and returned to winter quarters in Canada.

The American army might now be said to be no more. All that now remained of an army, which, at the opening of the campaign, amounted to at least twenty-five thousand men, did not now exceed three thousand. The term of their engagements being expired, they returned in large bodies to their families and friends; the few, who, from personal attachment, local circumstances, or superior perseverance and bravery, continued with the Generals Washington and Lee, were too inconsiderable to appear formidable in the view of a powerful and victorious enemy.

In this alarming and critical situation of affairs, General Lee, through an imprudent carelessness, which ill became a man in his important station, was captured by a party of British light horse, commanded by Colonel Harcourt. This unfortunate circumstance gave a severe shock to the remaining hopes of the little army, and rendered their situation truly distressing.

While these things were transacting in New Jersey, General Washington, far from being discouraged by the loss of General Lee, and always ready to improve every advantage to raise the drooping spirits of his handful of men, had made a stand on the Pennsylvania side of the Delaware. He collected his scattered forces, called in the assistance of the Pennsylvania militia, and on the night of the 25th of December, 1776, when

when the enemy were lulled into security by the idea of his weakness, and by the inclemency of the night, which was remarkably boisterous, as well as by the fumes of a Christmas eve, he crossed the river, and, at the breaking of day, marched down to Trenton, and so completely surprised them, that the greater part of the detachment, which were stationed at this place, surrendered after a short resistance. The horsemen and a few others made their escape at the opposite end of the town. Upwards of nine hundred Hessians were taken prisoners at this time.

The address in planning and executing this enterprize reflected the highest honour on the commander, and the success revived the desponding hopes of America. The loss of General Mercer, a gallant officer, at Princeton, was the principal circumstance that allayed the joys of victory.

The following year, 1777, was distinguished by very memorable events in favour of America. On the opening of the campaign, Governor Tryon was sent with a body of troops to destroy the stores at Danbury in Connecticut. This plan was executed, and the town mostly burnt. The enemy suffered in their retreat, and the Americans lost General Wooster, a brave and experienced officer.

General Prescott was taken from his quarters on Rhode Island, by the address and enterprize of Colonel Barton, and conveyed prisoner to the continent.

General Burgoyne, who commanded the northern British army, took possession of Ticonderoga, which had been abandoned by the Americans. He pushed his successes, crossed Lake George, and encamped upon the banks of the Hudson, near Saratoga. His progress, however, was checked by the defeat of Colonel Baum, near Bennington, in which the undisciplined militia, under General Stark, displayed unexampled bravery, and captured almost the whole detachment. The militia assembled from all parts of New England to stop the progress of General Burgoyne.

These, with the regular troops, formed a respectable army, commanded by General Gates. After two severe actions, in which the Generals Lincoln and Arnold behaved with uncommon gallantry, and were wounded, General Burgoyne found himself enclosed with brave troops, and was forced to surrender his whole army, amounting to five thousand seven hundred and fifty-two men, into the hands of the Americans.* This memorable event happened on the 17th of October, 1777; and diffused an universal joy over America, and laid a foundation for the treaty with France.

But before these transactions, the main body of the British forces had embarked at New York, sailed up the Chesapeake, and landed at the head of Elk river. The army soon began their march for Philadelphia. General Washington had determined to oppose them, and for this purpose made a stand, first at Red Clay Creek, and then upon the heights near Brandywine Creek. Here the armies engaged, and the Americans were overpowered, and suffered great loss. The enemy soon pursued their march, and took possession of Philadelphia towards the close of September.

Not long after, the two armies were again engaged at Germantown, and in the beginning of the action, the Americans had the advantage; but by some unlucky accident, the fortune of the day was turned in favour of the British. Both sides suffered considerable losses; on the side of the Americans was General Nash.

In an attack upon the forts at Mud Island and Red Bank, the Hessians were unsuccessful, and their commander, Colonel Donop, killed. The British also lost the *Augusta*, a ship of the line. But the forts were afterwards taken, and the navigation

* When General Burgoyne left Canada, his army consisted of 10,000 men, together with one of the most complete and grand trains of artillery that was ever sent from Great Britain.

of the Delaware opened. General Washington was reinforced, with a part of the troops which had composed the northern army, under General Gates; and both armies retired to winter quarters.

In October, the same month in which General Burgoyne was taken at Saratoga, General Vaughan, with a small fleet, sailed up Hudson's river, and burnt Kingston, a beautiful Dutch settlement, on the west side of the river.

The beginning of the next year, 1778, was distinguished by a treaty of alliance between France and America; by which we obtained a powerful and generous ally. When the English ministry were informed that this treaty was on foot, they dispatched commissioners to America to attempt a reconciliation. But America would not now accept their offers. Early in the spring, Count d'Estaing, with a fleet of fifteen sail of the line, was sent by the court of France to assist America.

General Howe left the army, and returned to England; the command then devolved upon Sir Henry Clinton.

In June the British army left Philadelphia, and marched for New York: on their march they were annoyed by the Americans; and at Monmouth a very regular action took place between part of the armies; the enemy were repulsed with great loss. General Lee, for his misconduct that day, was suspended, and was never afterwards permitted to join the army.

General Lee's conduct, at several times before this, had been very suspicious. In December, 1776, he lay at Chatham, about eleven miles from Elizabeth Town, with a brigade of troops, when a great quantity of baggage was stored at Elizabeth Town, under a guard of only five hundred Hessians. General Lee was apprised of this, and might have surprised the guard and taken the baggage; but he neglected the opportunity, and after several marches and counter-marches between Troy, Chatham, and Morris Town, he took up his quarters at, or near White's tavern, where he was surprised and taken prisoner by a party of the British horse. He was heard to say, repeatedly, that General Washington would ruin a fine army. It was suspected that he had designs to supplant the General, and his friends attempted to place him at the head of the army. General Washington's prudent delays and cautious movements afforded General Lee's friends many opportunities to spread reports unfavourable to his character. It was insinuated, with some success, that General Washington wanted courage and abilities. Reports of this kind, at one time, rendered General Lee very popular, and, it is supposed, he wished to frustrate General Washington's plans, in order to increase the suspicions already entertained of his generalship, and turn the public clamour in his own favour. His conduct at Monmouth was, by some, supposed to have proceeded from such a design; for he commanded the flower of the American army, and was not destitute of courage.

In August, General Sullivan, with a large body of troops, attempted to take possession of Rhode Island, but did not succeed. Soon after, the stores and shipping at Bedford, in Massachusetts, were burnt by a party of the British troops. The same year, Savannah, the capital of Georgia, was taken by the British, under the command of Colonel Campbell.

In the following year, 1779, General Lincoln was appointed to the command of the southern army.

Governor Tryon and Sir George Collier made an incursion into Connecticut, and burnt the towns of Fairfield and Norwalk. But the American arms were crowned with success in a bold attack upon Stoney Point, which was surprised and taken by the
brave

brave General Wayne, in the night of the 15th of July. Five hundred men were made prisoners, with little loss on either side.

A party of British forces attempted this summer to build a fort on Penobscot river, for the purpose of cutting timber in the neighbouring forest. A plan was laid in Massachusetts to dislodge them, and a considerable fleet collected for the purpose: but the plan failed of success, and the whole marine force fell into the hands of the British, except some vessels which were burnt by the Americans themselves.

In October, General Lincoln and Count d'Estaing made an assault upon Savannah; but they were repulsed with considerable loss. In this action, the celebrated Polish Count Pulaski, who had acquired the reputation of a brave soldier, was mortally wounded.

In this summer General Sullivan marched with a body of troops into the Indian country, in the western part of the New York State, and burnt and destroyed all their provisions and settlements that fell in their way.

On the opening of the campaign the next year, 1780, the British troops left Rhode Island. An expedition, under General Clinton and Lord Cornwallis, was undertaken against Charleston, South Carolina, where General Lincoln commanded. This town, after a close siege of about six weeks, was surrendered to the British commander; and General Lincoln, and the whole American garrison, were made prisoners.

General Gates was appointed to the command in the southern department, and another army collected. In August, Lord Cornwallis attacked the American troops at Camden, in South Carolina, and routed them with considerable loss. He afterwards marched through the southern States, and subdued them entirely subdued.

The same summer, the British troops made frequent incursions from New York into the Jerseys, ravaging and plundering the country.

In July, a French fleet, under Monsieur de Ternay, with a body of land forces, commanded by Count de Rochambeau, arrived at Rhode Island, to the great joy of the Americans.

This year was also distinguished by the treachery of General Arnold. General Washington having some business to transact at Weathersfield in Connecticut, left Arnold to command the important post of West Point, which guards a pass in Hudson's river, about sixty miles from New York. Arnold's conduct in the city of Philadelphia, the preceding winter, had been censured; and the treatment he received in consequence, had given him offence.

He determined to take revenge, and for this purpose, he entered into a negotiation with Sir Henry Clinton to deliver West Point, and the army, into the hands of the British. While General Washington was absent, he dismounted the cannon in some of the forts, and took other steps to render the taking of the post easy for the enemy.

But by a providential discovery the whole plan was defeated. Major Andre, Adjutant-general in the British army, aid-du-camp to General Clinton, a brave officer, who had been sent up the river as a spy, to concert the plan of operations with Arnold, was taken, condemned by a court-martial, and executed. Arnold made his escape, by getting on board the Vulture, a British vessel which lay in the river. General Washington arrived in camp just after Arnold made his escape, and restored order in the garrison.

After the defeat of General Gates, in Carolina, General Greene was appointed to command.

command in the southern department.* From this period, things in that quarter wore a more favourable aspect. Colonel Tarleton, the active commander of the British legion, was defeated by General Morgan, the intrepid commander of the riflemen.

After a variety of movements the two armies met at Guilford, in Carolina. Here was one of the best fought actions during the war. General Greene and Lord Cornwallis exerted themselves at the head of their respective armies; and although the Americans were obliged to retire from the field, yet the British army suffered an immense loss, and could not pursue the victory. The action happened on the 15th March, 1781.

In the spring, General Arnold, who was made a brigadier-general in the British service, with a small number of troops sailed for Virginia, and plundered the country. This called the attention of the French fleet to that quarter, and a naval engagement took place between the English and French, in which some of the English ships were much damaged, and one entirely disabled.

After the battle of Guilford, General Greene moved towards South Carolina, to drive the British from their posts in that State. Here Lord Rawdon obtained an inconsiderable advantage over the Americans, near Camden. But General Greene more than recovered this disadvantage, by the brilliant and successful action at the Eutaw Springs; where General Mifflin distinguished himself, and the brave Col. Washington was wounded and taken prisoner.

Lord Cornwallis, finding General Greene successful in Carolina, marched to Virginia, collected his forces, and fortified himself in York Town. In the mean time Arnold made an incursion into Connecticut, burnt a part of New London, took Fort Griswold by storm, and put the garrison to the sword. The garrison consisted chiefly of men collected from the little town of Groton, which, by the savage cruelty of the British officer who commanded the attack, lost, in one hour, almost all its heads of families. The brave Colonel Ledyard, who commanded the fort, was slain with his own sword after he had surrendered.

The Marquis de la Fayette,† the brave and generous nobleman, whose services command the gratitude of every American, had been dispatched with about two thousand

* General Greene was born at Warwick, in the State of Rhode Island, about the year 1741, of reputable parents, belonging to the society of *Friends*. He was endowed with an uncommon degree of judgement and penetration; his disposition was benevolent, and his manners affable. At an early period of life he was chosen a member of the Assembly, and he discharged his trust to the entire satisfaction of his constituents.

After the battle of Lexington, three regiments of troops were raised in Rhode Island, and the command of them given to Mr. Greene, who was nominated a brigadier-general. His merit and abilities, both in council and in the field, were soon noticed by General Washington, and in August 1776 he was appointed Major-general. His action with the British troops at Eutaw Springs was one of the best conducted, and most successful engagements that took place during the war. For this General Greene was honoured by Congress with a British standard and a gold medal. As a reward for his particular services in the southern department, the State of Georgia presented him with a large and valuable tract of land on an island near Savannah.

After the war he returned to his native State. The contentions and bad policy of that State induced him to leave it and retire to his estate in Georgia.

He removed his family in October 1785; but in June the next summer, the extreme heat, and the fatigue of a walk, brought on a disorder that put a period to his life, on the 19th of the same month. He lived universally loved and respected, and his death was universally lamented.

His body was interred in Savannah, and the funeral procession attended by the Cincinnati.

† The Marquis de la Fayette was born about the year 1757. At the age of nineteen he espoused the cause of America, with all the ardour which the most generous philanthropy could inspire. At a very early period of

land light infantry from the main army, to watch the motions of Lord Cornwallis in Virginia. He prosecuted this expedition with the greatest military ability. Although his force was much inferior to that of the enemy, he obliged them to leave Richmond and Williamsburgh, and to seek protection under their shipping.

About the last of August, Count de Grasse arrived in the Chesapeake and blocked up the British troops at York-town. Admiral Greaves, with a British fleet, appeared off the Capes, and an action succeeded; but it was not decisive.

General Washington had before this time moved the main body of his army, together with the French troops, to the southward; and as soon as he heard of the arrival of the French fleet in the Chesapeake, he made rapid marches to the head of Elk, where embarking, the troops soon arrived at York-town.

A close siege immediately commenced, and was carried on with such vigour, by the combined forces of America and France, that Lord Cornwallis was obliged to surrender. This glorious event, which took place on the 19th of October, 1781, decided the contest in favour of America; and laid the foundation of a general peace.

A few months after the surrender of Cornwallis, the British evacuated all their posts in South Carolina and Georgia, and retired to the main army in New York.

The next spring, 1782, Sir Guy Carleton arrived in New York, and took the command of the British army in America: immediately on his arrival, he acquainted General Washington and Congress, that negotiations for peace had commenced at Paris.

On the 30th of November, 1782, the provisional articles of peace and reconciliation, between Great Britain and the American States, were signed at Paris; by

of the war he determined to embark from his native country for the United States: before he could complete his intention, intelligence arrived in Europe, that the American insurgents, reduced to two thousand men, were flying through Jersey before a British force of thirty thousand regulars. The news so effectually extinguished the little credit which America had in Europe, in the beginning of the year 1777, that the Commissioners of Congress at Paris, though they had previously encouraged his project, could not procure a vessel to forward his intentions. Under these circumstances, they thought it but honest to dissuade him from the present prosecution of his perilous enterprise. It was in vain they acted so candid a part. The flame which America had kindled in his breast, could not be extinguished by her misfortunes. 'Hitherto,' said he, in the true spirit of patriotism, 'I have only cherished your cause—now I am going to serve it. The lower it is in the opinion of the people, the greater will be the effect of my departure; and since you cannot get a vessel, I shall purchase and fit out one to carry your dispatches to Congress and myself to America.' Whilst this vessel was preparing he visited England, was introduced to the King's minister and many of the nobility and first characters of the nation. By this means he was enabled to form a good judgement of men and things there. He embarked and arrived in Charleston early in the year 1777. Congress soon conferred on him the rank of major-general: he accepted the appointment, but not without exacting two conditions, which displayed the elevation of his spirit; the one, that he should serve on his own expence; the other, that he should begin his services as a volunteer.

He was soon appointed to command an expedition to Canada. The plan was to cross the lakes on the ice; the object, to seize Montreal and St. John's. He was now at the age of twenty, and must have keenly experienced the allurements of independent command; but his cool judgement, and honest heart, restrained him from indulging a passion for military fame, under circumstances which might have injured the cause which he had so zealously espoused. He found that, in case of his proceeding, the army under his command would be in danger of experiencing a fate similar to that of the unfortunate Burgoyne. With a boldness of judgement that would have done honour to the most experienced general, and without advancing beyond Albany, he relinquished the expedition. Soon after he received the thanks of Congress for his prudence.

In the four campaigns which succeeded the arrival of the Marquis de la Fayette in America, he gave repeated proofs of his military talents in the middle and eastern States; but the events that took place under his command in Virginia, contributed most to his military glory.

Some time after the capture of Cornwallis, the Marquis de la Fayette went to France, where he used his endeavours to promote the commercial and political interests of these States, and to effect a revolution in his native country in favour of liberty. It remains for future ages to pourtray the virtues and exploits of this truly great man—this friend to human nature—this second WASHINGTON.

which Great Britain acknowledged the independence and sovereignty of the United States of America. These articles were ratified by a definitive treaty, September 3d, 1783. This peace was negotiated on the part of Great Britain by Mr. Oswald, and the definitive treaty was signed by Mr. Hartley; and on the part of the United States by John Adams, John Jay,* and Benjamin Franklin,† Esquires.

Thus

* John Jay, Esq. is a descendant of one of the French Protestant Emigrants, who came to America, in consequence of the Revolution of the Edict of Nantz, in 1685. It is remarkable that among the descendants of these emigrants, some of whom settled in New York, and some in Boston, there have been the following eminent characters—James Bowdoin, Esq. who had been Governor of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, and at his death was President of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences; Henry Laurens, Esq. who has been President of Congress, and Ambassador to a foreign court; Elias Boudinot, Esq. who has been President of Congress, and is now a Representative; and John Jay, Esq. who has been President of Congress, Ambassador to a foreign Court, and is now Chief Justice of the American States.

† Dr. Franklin was born in Boston, January 6th, 1706, O. S. He was educated to the business of printing. In the first twenty-four years of his life he passed through an uncommon variety of scenes, which he improved to valuable purposes. He early discovered a strong and distinguishing mind, and a fertile inventive genius. About the age of 24 he married Miss Read of Philadelphia, where he had established himself as a printer. In 1736, he was chosen Clerk of the General Assembly of Pennsylvania; and the year following was appointed Post-master in Philadelphia. In 1744, he broached the idea of the American Philosophical Society, and had the pleasure to find it meet with all the success he could desire. He was the principal instrument also in planning, and establishing the Academy of Philadelphia, from which have sprung the College and University of that city.

In 1747, and for twenty years after, successively, he was chosen a representative to the Assembly for the city of Philadelphia; in which situation he was highly respected and singularly useful. He was appointed joint Post-master General with Mr. William Hunter in 1753. He was greatly instrumental in carrying into effect Dr. Bond's plan for an hospital in Philadelphia, the advantages of which have been extensively experienced. By this time his character as a philosopher was known in Europe as well as America, and he received the honorary degree of Master of Arts from Yale and Harvard Colleges.

In 1754, he was appointed one of the Commissioners from Pennsylvania to attend the celebrated Albany Congress, in order to devise a plan for defending the country against the French. Here he drew up his "Albany Plan of Union," which was unanimously agreed to by Congress, but, though wisely adapted to preserve the harmony between Great Britain and her Colonies, was ultimately rejected.

In 1757, the Assembly of Pennsylvania, indignant at the obstinacy of the governors, who were shackled with instructions not to assent to any tax bill, that did not exempt the estates of the proprietors from contributing to the public service, determined to send an agent to London, to petition the King for redress. Mr. Franklin was appointed for this purpose, and ably negotiated the business; for which, on his return to Philadelphia, he received the thanks of the General Assembly.

His distinguished literary reputation procured him, while in England, the honorary title of Doctor of Laws from Edinburgh and Oxford Universities.

Some time after this, he was again sent to England, by the Assembly of Pennsylvania, with a petition to have a new form of government established, and to be taken under the royal protection. Before his return to America, he travelled, in 1766, into Germany, and in 1767, into France; and wherever he appeared, he was received with the highest respect and veneration. His endeavours to prevent the enactment of the *stamp act*, the ability with which he sustained his examination at the bar of the House of Commons, his obtaining and forwarding to Boston the insidious letters of Governor Hutchinson, procured for him, on his return to America, the most unbounded applause of his countrymen. He was soon elected a member of Congress; and in 1776, was chosen with John Adams and Edward Rutledge, Esquires, a Committee of Congress to wait on Lord Howe, and to inquire into the extent of his powers to treat of the restoration of peace. Lord Howe having expressed his concern at being obliged to distress those whom he so much regarded, Dr. Franklin assured him, that the Americans, out of reciprocal regard, would endeavour to lessen, as much as possible, the pain he might feel on their account, by taking the utmost care of themselves.

In 1776, a convention was called, in Pennsylvania, to establish a new form of government. Dr. Franklin was appointed President. The latter end of the same year he was sent to France, where, with the assistance of Mr. Silas Dean, he negotiated a treaty with France, Feb. 1778.

We have already mentioned his being one of the three Commissioners who negotiated the peace of 1783. He returned to America in 1785, and was chosen President of the Supreme Executive Council of Pennsylvania, and in 1787, was appointed a delegate from that State to the august body which formed the present frame of government of the United States.

Thus ended a long and arduous conflict, in which Great Britain expended near an hundred millions of money, with an hundred thousand lives, and won nothing. America endured every cruelty and distress from her enemies; lost many lives and much treasure; but delivered herself from a foreign dominion, and gained a rank among the nations of the earth.

Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States on the 19th of April, 1782; Sweden, February 5th, 1783; Denmark, the 25th of February; Spain, in March, and Russia, in July 1783.

No sooner was peace restored by the definitive treaty, and the British troops withdrawn from the country, than the United States began to experience the defects of their general government. While an enemy was in the country, fear, which had first impelled the colonies to associate in mutual defence, continued to operate as a band of political union. It gave to the resolutions and recommendations of Congress the force of laws, and generally commanded a ready acquiescence on the part of the State legislatures. Articles of confederation and perpetual union had been framed in Congress, and submitted to the consideration of the States, in the year 1778. Some of the States immediately acceded to them; but others, which had not unappropriated lands, hesitated to subscribe a compact, which would give an advantage to the States which possessed large tracts of unlocated lands, and were thus capable of a great superiority in wealth and population. All objections however had been overcome, and by the accession of Maryland in March 1781, the articles of confederation were ratified, as the frame of government for the United States.

These articles, however, were framed during the rage of war, when a principle of common safety supplied the place of a coercive power in government, by men who could have had no experience in the art of governing an extensive country, and under circumstances the most critical and embarrassing. To have offered to the people, at that time, a system of government armed with the powers necessary to regulate and control the contending interests of thirteen States, and the possessions of millions of people, might have raised a jealousy between the States or in the minds of the people at large, that would have weakened the operations of war, and perhaps have rendered an union impracticable. Hence the numerous defects of the confederation.

On the conclusion of peace, these defects began to be felt. Each State assumed the right of disputing the propriety of the resolutions of Congress, and the interest of an individual State was placed in opposition to the common interest of the union. In

On the 17th of April, 1790, after a long and painful illness, he resigned a life which had been singularly devoted to the welfare of his country and the good of mankind.

Among the many testimonies of respect paid to his memory, the Congress of the United States, and the National Assembly of France, went into mourning on his death.

Dr. Franklin possessed an original genius. The faculties of his mind qualified him to penetrate into every science; and his singular and unremitting diligence left no field of knowledge unexplored. He was eminently distinguished as a politician, and a scholar, and if possible more so as a man and a citizen. He was great in common things, and his life was useful beyond most men that have lived. The whole tenor of his life was a perpetual lecture against the idle, the extravagant, and the proud. It was his principal aim to inspire mankind with a love of industry, temperance, and frugality. By a judicious division of time, he acquired the art of doing every thing to advantage. In whatever situation he was placed, by chance or design, he extracted something useful for himself or others. His manners were easy and accommodating, and his address winning and respectful. All who knew him speak of him as an agreeable man; and all who have heard of him, applaud him as a very useful one. A man so wise and so amiable, could not but have many admirers and many friends. *

* American Museum, Vol. VIII.

addition to this source of division, a jealousy of the powers of Congress began to be excited in the minds of people.

This jealousy of the privileges of freemen had been roused by the oppressive act of the British parliament; and no sooner had the danger from this quarter ceased, than the fears of people changed their object, and were turned against their own rulers.

In this situation, there were not wanting men of industry and talents, who had been enemies to the revolution, and who embraced the opportunity to multiply the apprehensions of people and increase the popular discontents. A remarkable instance of this happened in Connecticut. As soon as the tumults of war had subsided, an attempt was made to convince the people, that the act of Congress passed in 1778, granting to the officers of the army, half-pay for life, was highly unjust and tyrannical; and that it was but the first step towards the establishment of pensions and an uncontrollable despotism. The act of Congress, passed in 1783, commuting half-pay for life, for five years full pay, was designed to appease the apprehensions of people, and to convince them that this gratuity was intended merely to indemnify the officers for their losses by the depreciating of the paper currency, and not to establish a precedent for the granting of pensions. This act however did not satisfy the people; who supposed that the officers had been generally indemnified for the loss of their pay by the grants made them from time to time by the legislatures of the several States. Besides, the act, while it gave five years full pay to the officers, allowed but one year's pay to the privates; a distinction which had great influence in exciting and continuing the popular ferment, and one that turned a large share of the public rage against the officers themselves.

The moment an alarm was raised respecting this act of Congress, the enemies of our independence became active in blowing up the flame, by spreading reports unfavourable to the general government, and tending to create public dissensions. Newspapers, in some parts of the country, were filled with inflammatory publications; while false reports and groundless insinuations were industriously circulated to the prejudice of Congress and the officers of the late army. Among a people feelingly alive to every thing that could affect the rights for which they had been contending, these reports could not fail of having a powerful effect; the clamour soon became general; the officers of the army, it was believed, had attempted to raise their fortunes on the distresses of their fellow citizens, and Congress become the tyrants of their country.

Connecticut was the seat of this uneasiness; although other States were much agitated on the occasion. But the inhabitants of that State, accustomed to order and a due subordination to the laws, did not proceed to outrages; they took their usual mode of collecting the sense of the State—asssembled in town meetings—appointed committees to meet in convention, and consult what measures should be adopted to procure a redress of their grievances. In this convention, which was held at Middletown, some ungatory resolves were passed, expressing the disapprobation of the half-pay act, and the subsequent commutation of the grant for five years whole pay. The same spirit also discovered itself in the assembly at their October session 1783. A remonstrance against the acts in favour of the officers was framed in the House of Representatives, and notwithstanding the Upper House refused to concur in the measure, it was sent to Congress.

During this situation of affairs, the public odium against the officers was augmented by another circumstance. The officers, just before the disbanding of the army, had

had formed a society, called by the name of the *Cincinnati*, after the Roman Dictator, Cincinnatus.

Whatever were the real views of the framers of this institution, its design was generally understood to be harmless and honourable. The ostensible views of the society could not however screen it from popular jealousy. A spirited pamphlet appeared in South Carolina, the avowed production of Mr. Burke, one of the judges of the supreme court in that State, in which the author attempted to prove that the principles, on which the society was formed, would, in process of time, originate and establish an order of nobility in this country, which would be repugnant to the genius of our republican governments, and dangerous to liberty. This pamphlet appeared in Connecticut, during the commotions raised by the half-pay and commutation acts, and contributed not a little to spread the flame of opposition.

Notwithstanding the discontents of the people were general, and ready to burst forth in sedition, yet men of information, viz. the officers of government, the clergy, and persons of liberal education, were mostly opposed to the unconstitutional steps taken by the committees and convention at Middletown. They supported the propriety of the measures of Congress, both by conversation and writing, proved that such grants to the army were necessary to keep the troops together, and that the expense would not be enormous nor oppressive. During the close of the year 1783, every possible exertion was made to enlighten the people, and such was the effect of the arguments used by the minority, that in the beginning of the following year, the opposition subsided, the committees were dismissed, and tranquillity restored to the State. In May, the legislature were able to carry several measures which had before been extremely unpopular. An act was passed granting the impost of five per cent. to Congress; another giving great encouragement to commerce; and several towns were incorporated with extensive privileges, for the purpose of regulating the exports of the State, and facilitating the collection of debts.

The opposition to the congressional acts in favour of the officers, and to the order of the *Cincinnati*, did not rise to the same pitch in the other States as in Connecticut; yet it produced much disturbance in Massachusetts, and some others. Jealousy of power had been universally spread among the people of the United States. The destruction of the old forms of governments, and the licentiousness of war, had, in a great measure, broken their habits of obedience; their passions had been inflamed by the cry of despotism; and like centinels, who have been suddenly surprised by the approach of an enemy, the rustling of a leaf was sufficient to give them an alarm. This spirit of jealousy operated with other causes to relax the energy of federal operations.

During the war, vast sums of paper currency had been emitted by Congress, and large quantities of specie had been introduced, towards the close of the war, by the French army, and the Spanish trade. This plenty of money enabled the States to comply with the first requisitions of Congress; so that during two or three years, the federal treasury was, in some measure, supplied. But when the danger of war had ceased, and the vast importations of foreign goods had lessened the quantity of circulating specie, the States began to be very remiss in furnishing their proportion of monies. The annihilation of the credit of the paper bills had totally stopped their circulation, and the specie was leaving the country in cargoes for remittances to Great Britain; still the luxurious habits of the people, contracted during the war, called for new supplies of goods, and private gratification seconded the narrow policy of state interest in defeating the operations of the general government.

Thus

Thus the revenues of Congress were annually diminishing; some of the States wholly neglecting to make provision for paying the interest of the national debt; others making but a partial provision, until the scanty supplies received from a few of the richest States, would hardly satisfy the demands of the civil list.

This weakness of the federal government, in conjunction with the flood of certificates or public securities, which Congress could neither fund nor pay, occasioned them to depreciate to a very inconsiderable value. The officers and soldiers of the late army, and those who furnished supplies for public exigencies, were obliged to receive for wages these certificates, or promissory notes, which passed at a fifth, an eighth, or a tenth of their nominal value; being thus deprived at once of the greatest part of the reward due for their services. Some indeed profited by speculations in these evidences of the public debt; but such as were under a necessity of parting with them, were robbed of that support which they had a right to expect and demand from their countrymen.

Pennsylvania indeed made a provision for paying the interest of her debts, both state and federal; assuming her supposed proportion of the continental debt, and giving the creditors of her own State notes in exchange for those of the United States. The resources of that State are immense, but she was not able to make punctual payments, even in a depreciated paper currency.

Massachusetts, in her zeal to comply fully with the requisitions of Congress, and satisfy the demands of her own creditors, laid a heavy tax upon the people. This was the immediate cause of the rebellion in that State, in 1786. But a heavy debt lying on the State, added to burdens of the same nature, upon almost every corporation within it; a decline, or rather an extinction of public credit; a relaxation and corruption of manners, and a free use of foreign luxuries; a decay of trade and manufactures, with a prevailing scarcity of money; and, above all, individuals involved in debt to each other. These were the real, though more remote causes of the insurrection. It was the tax which the people were required to pay, that caused them to feel the evils which we have enumerated—this called forth all their other grievances; and the first act of violence committed was the burning or destroying of the tax bill. This sedition threw the State into a convulsion which lasted about a year; courts of justice were violently obstructed; the collection of debts was suspended; and a body of armed troops, under the command of General Lincoln, was employed during the winter of 1786, to disperse the insurgents. Yet so numerous were the latter in the counties of Worcester, Hampshire, and Berkshire, and so obstinately combined to oppose the execution of law by force, that the governor and council of the State thought proper not to intrust General Lincoln with military powers, except to act on the defensive, and to repel force with force, in case the insurgents should attack him. The leaders of the rebels, however, were not men of talents; they were desperate, but without fortitude; and even while they were supported with a superior force, they appeared to be impressed with that consciousness of guilt, which awes the most daring wretch, and makes him shrink from his purpose. This appears by the conduct of a large party of the rebels before the magazine at Springfield, where General Shepard, with a small guard, was stationed to protect the continental stores. The insurgents appeared upon the plain, with a vast superiority of numbers, but a few shot from the artillery made the multitude retreat in disorder with the loss of four men. This spirited conduct of General Shepard, with the industry, perseverance, and prudent firmness of General Lincoln, dispersed the rebels—drove the leaders from the State, and restored tranquillity. An act of indemnity was passed in the legislature for all the insurgents, except a few of the leaders, on condition they should

should become peaceable subjects, and take the oath of allegiance. The leaders afterwards petitioned for pardon, which, from motives of policy, was granted by the legislature.*

But the loss of public credit, popular disturbances, and insurrections, were not the only evils which were generated by the peculiar circumstances of the times. The emissions of bills of credit and tender laws were added to the black catalogue of political disorders.

The expedient of supplying the deficiencies of specie, by emissions of paper bills, was adopted very early in the colonies. The expedient was obvious and produced good effects. In a new country, where population is rapid, and the value of lands increasing, the farmer finds an advantage in paying legal interest for money; for if he can pay the interest by his profits, the increasing value of his lands will in a few years discharge the principal.

In no colony was this advantage more sensibly experienced than in Pennsylvania. The emigrations to that province were numerous—the natural population rapid—and these circumstances combined, advanced the value of real property to an astonishing degree. As the first settlers there, as well as in other provinces, were poor, the purchase of a few foreign articles drained them of specie. Indeed for many years, the balance of trade must have necessarily been greatly against the colonies.

But bills of credit, emitted by the State and loaned to the industrious inhabitants, supplied the want of specie, and enabled the farmer to purchase stock. These bills were generally a legal tender in all colonial or private contracts, and the sums issued did not generally exceed the quantity requisite for a medium of trade; they retained their full nominal value in the purchase of commodities: but as they were not received by the British merchants, in payment of their goods, there was a great demand for specie and bills, which occasioned the latter at various times to appreciate. Thus was introduced a difference between the English sterling money and the currencies of the colonies, which remains to this day.†

The advantages the colonies had derived from bills of credit, under the British government, suggested to Congress, in 1775, the idea of issuing bills for the purpose of carrying on the war; and this was perhaps their only expedient. Money could not be raised by taxation—it could not be borrowed. The first emissions had no other effect upon the medium of commerce, than to drive the specie from circulation. But when the paper substituted for specie had, by repeated emissions, augmented the sum in circulation, much beyond the usual sum of specie, the bills began to lose their value. The depreciation continued in proportion to the sums emitted, until seventy, and even one hundred and fifty nominal paper dollars, were hardly an equivalent for one Spanish milled dollar. Still, from the year 1775 to 1781, this depreciating paper currency was almost the only medium of trade. It supplied the place of specie, and enabled Congress to support a numerous army; until the sum in circulation amounted to two hundred millions of dollars. But about the year 1780, specie began to be plentiful, being introduced by the French army, a private trade with the Spanish islands, and an illicit intercourse with the British garrison at New York. This circumstance accelerated the depreciation of paper bills, until their value had sunk almost

* See an elegant and impartial History of this Rebellion, by George Richards Minot, Esq.

† A Dollar in Sterling money is 4s. 6d. But the price of a Dollar rose in New England currency to 6s. in New York to 8s. in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland, to 7s. 6d. in Virginia to 6s. in North Carolina to 8s. in South Carolina and Georgia to 4s. 8d. This difference, originating between paper and specie, or bills, continued afterwards to exist in the nominal estimation of gold and silver.

to nothing. In 1781, the merchants and brokers in the southern States, apprehensive of the approaching fate of the currency, pushed immense quantities of it suddenly into New England—made vast purchases of goods in Boston—and instantly the bills vanished from circulation.

The whole history of this continental paper is a history of public and private frauds. Old specie debts were often paid in a depreciated currency—and even new contracts for a few weeks or days were often discharged with a small part of the value received. From this plenty and fluctuating state of the medium sprung hosts of speculators and itinerant traders, who left their honest occupations for the prospect of immense gains, in a fraudulent business, that depended on no fixed principles, and the profits of which could be reduced to no certain calculations.

To increase these evils, a project was formed to fix the prices of articles, and restrain persons from giving or receiving more for any commodity than the price stated by authority. These regulating acts were reprobated by every man acquainted with commerce and finance; as they were intended to prevent an effect without removing the cause. To attempt to fix the value of money, while streams of bills were incessantly flowing from the treasury of the United States, was as ridiculous as an attempt to restrain the rising of water in rivers amidst showers of rain.

Notwithstanding all opposition, some States framed and attempted to enforce these regulating acts. The effect was, a momentary apparent stand in the price of articles; innumerable acts of collusion and evasion among the dishonest; numberless injuries done to the honest; and finally a total disregard of all such regulations, and the consequential contempt of laws and the authority of the magistrate.

During these fluctuations of business, occasioned by the variable value of money, people lost sight, in some measure, of the steady principles which had before governed their intercourse with each other. Speculation followed and relaxed the rigour of commercial obligations.

Industry likewise had suffered by the flood of money which had deluged the States. The prices of produce had risen in proportion to the quantity of money in circulation, and the demand for the commodities of the country. This made the acquisition of money easy, and indolence and luxury, with their train of desolating consequences, spread themselves among all descriptions of people.

But as soon as hostilities between Great Britain and America were suspended, the scene was changed. The bills emitted by Congress had for some time before ceased to circulate; and the specie of the country was soon drained off to pay for foreign goods, the importations of which exceeded all calculation. Within two years from the close of the war, *a scarcity of money* was the general cry. The merchants found it impossible to collect their debts, and make punctual remittances to their creditors in Great Britain; and the consumers were driven to the necessity of retrenching their superfluities in living, and of returning to their ancient habits of industry and œconomy.

This change was however progressive and slow. In many of the States which suffered by the numerous debts they had contracted, and by the distresses of war, the people called aloud for emissions of paper bills to supply the deficiency of a medium. The depreciation of the continental bills was a recent example of the ill effects of such an expedient, and the impossibility of supporting the credit of paper was urged by the opposers of the measure as a substantial argument against adopting it. But nothing would silence the popular clamor; and many men of the first talents and eminence united their voices with that of the populace. Paper money had formerly maintained its credit

credit, and been of singular utility : and past experience, notwithstanding a change of circumstances, was an argument in its favor that bore down all opposition.

Pennsylvania, although one of the richest States in the union, was the first to emit bills of credit, as a substitute for specie. But the revolution had removed the necessity of it, at the same time that it had destroyed the means by which its former credit had been supported. Lands, at the close of the war, were not rising in value—bills on London could not so readily be purchased, as while the province was dependent on Great Britain—the State was split into parties, one of which attempted to defeat the measures most popular with the other—and the depreciation of continental bills, with the injuries which it had done to individuals, inspired a general distrust of all public promises.

Notwithstanding a part of the money was loaned on good landed security, and the faith of that wealthy State pledged for the redemption of the whole at its nominal value, yet the advantages of specie as a medium of commerce, especially as an article of remittance to London, soon made a difference of ten per cent. between the bills of credit and specie. This difference may be considered rather as an appreciation of gold and silver, than a depreciation of paper ; but its effects, in a commercial state, must be highly prejudicial. It opens the door to frauds of all kinds, and frauds are usually practised on the honest and unsuspecting, especially upon all classes of labourers.

North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia, had recourse to the same wretched expedient to supply themselves with money ; not reflecting that industry, frugality, and good commercial laws are the only means of turning the balance of trade in favour of a country, and that this balance is the only permanent source of solid wealth and ready money. But the bills they emitted shared a worse fate than those of Pennsylvania ; they expelled almost all the circulating cash from the States ; they lost a great part of their nominal value, they impoverished the merchants, and embarrassed the planters.

The State of Virginia tolerated a base practice among the inhabitants of cutting dollars and smaller pieces of silver, in order to prevent it from leaving the State. This pernicious practice prevailed also in Georgia.*

Maryland escaped the calamity of a paper currency. The house of delegates brought forward a bill for the emission of bills of credit to a large amount ; but the senate firmly and successfully resisted the pernicious scheme. The opposition between the two houses was violent and tumultuous ; it threatened the State with anarchy ; but the question was carried to the people, and the good sense of the senate finally prevailed.

New Jersey is situated between two of the largest commercial towns in America, and consequently drained of specie. This State also emitted a large sum in bills of credit, which served to pay the interest of the public debt ; but the currency depreciated, as in other States.

Rhode Island exhibited a melancholy proof of that licentiousness and anarchy which always follows a relaxation of the moral principles. In a rage for supplying the State with money, and filling every man's pocket without obliging him to earn it by his diligence, the legislature passed an act for making one hundred thousand pounds in bills ; a sum much more than sufficient for a medium of trade in that State, even without any specie. The merchants in Newport and Providence opposed the act with firmness ; and their opposition added fresh vigor to the resolution of the assembly, and induced them to enforce the scheme by a legal tender of a most extraordinary nature. They

* A dollar was usually cut in five pieces, and each passed by toll for a quarter ; so that the man who cut it gained a quarter, or rather a fifth.

passed an act, ordaining that if any creditor should refuse to take their bills, for any debt whatever, the debtor might lodge the sum due, with a justice of the peace, who should give notice of it in the public papers; and if the creditor did not appear and receive the money within six months from the first notice, his debt should be forfeited. This act astonished all honest men; and even the promoters of paper money-making in other States, and other principles, reprobated this act of Rhode Island, as wicked and oppressive. But the State was governed by faction. During the cry for paper money, a number of boisterous, ignorant men were elected into the legislature, from the smaller towns in the State. Finding themselves united with a majority in opinion, they formed and executed any plan their inclination suggested; they opposed every measure that was agreeable to the mercantile interest; they not only made bad laws to suit their own wicked purposes, but appointed their own corrupt creatures to fill the judicial and executive departments. Their money depreciated sufficiently to answer all their vile purposes in the discharge of debts—business almost totally ceased, all confidence was lost, the State was thrown into confusion at home and was execrated abroad.

Massachusetts Bay had the good fortune, amidst her political calamities, to prevent an emission of bills of credit. New Hampshire made no paper; but in the distresses which followed her loss of business after the war, the legislature made horses, lumber; and most articles of produce, a legal tender in the fulfilment of contracts. It is doubtless unjust to oblige a creditor to receive any thing for his debt, which he had not in contemplation at the time of the contract. But as the commodities which were to be a tender by law, in New Hampshire, were of an intrinsic value, bearing some proportion to the amount of the debt, the injustice of the law was less flagrant than that which enforced the tender of paper in Rhode Island. Indeed a similar law prevailed for some time in Massachusetts; and in Connecticut it is optional with the creditor, either to imprison the debtor or take land on execution at a price to be fixed by three indifferent freeholders; provided no other means of payment shall appear to satisfy the demand. It must not, however, be omitted; that while the most flourishing commercial States introduced a paper medium, to the great injury of honest men, a bill for an emission of paper in Connecticut; where there is very little specie, could never command more than one eighth of the votes of the legislature. The movers of the bill have hardly escaped ridicule; so generally is the measure reprobated as a source of frauds and public mischief.

The legislature of New York, a State that had the least necessity and apology for making paper money, as her commercial advantages always furnish her with specie sufficient for a medium, issued a large sum in bills of credit, which supported their value better than the currency of any other State. Still the paper raised the value of specie, which is always in demand for exportation, and this difference of exchange between paper and specie ever exposes commerce to most of the inconveniences resulting from a depreciated medium.

Such is the history of paper money thus far; a miserable substitute for real coin, in a country where the reins of government are too weak to compel the fulfilment of public engagements, and where all confidence in public faith is totally destroyed.

While the States were thus endeavouring to repair the loss of specie by empty promises, and to support their business by shadows, rather than by reality, the British ministry formed some commercial regulations that deprived them of the profits of their trade to the West Indies and Great Britain. Heavy duties were laid upon such articles as were remitted to the London merchants for their goods, and such were the duties upon

upon American bottoms, that the States were almost wholly deprived of the carrying trade. A prohibition was laid upon the produce of the United States, shipped to the English West India Islands in American built vessels, and in those manned by American seamen. These restrictions fell heavy upon the eastern States, which depended much upon ship-building for the support of their trade; and they materially injured the business of the other States.

Without a union that was able to form and execute a general system of commercial regulations, some of the States attempted to impose restraints upon the British trade that should indemnify the merchant for the losses he had suffered, or induce the British ministry to enter into a commercial treaty, and relax the rigour of their navigation laws. These measures however produced nothing but mischief. The States did not act in concert, and the restraints laid on the trade of one State operated to throw the business into the hands of its neighbour. Massachusetts, in her zeal to counteract the effect of the English navigation laws, laid enormous duties upon British goods imported into that State; but the other States did not adopt a similar measure; and the loss of business soon obliged that State to repeal or suspend the law. Thus when Pennsylvania laid heavy duties on British goods, Delaware and New Jersey made a number of free ports to encourage the landing of goods within the limits of those States; and the duties in Pennsylvania served no purpose but to create smuggling.

Thus divided, the States began to feel their weakness: most of the legislatures had neglected to comply with the requisitions of Congress for furnishing the federal treasury; the resolves of Congress were disregarded; the proposition for a general impost to be laid and collected by Congress was negatived, first by Rhode Island, and afterwards by New York. The British troops continued, under pretence of a breach of treaty on the part of America, to hold possession of the forts on the frontiers of the States. Many of the States individually were infested with popular commotions or iniquitous tender laws, while they were oppressed with public debts; the certificates or public notes had lost most of their value, and circulated merely as the objects of speculation; Congress lost their respectability, and the United States their credit and importance.

In the midst of these calamities, a proposition was made in 1785, in the House of Delegates in Virginia, to appoint Commissioners to meet such as might be appointed in the other States, who should form a system of commercial regulations for the United States, and recommend it to the several legislatures for adoption. Commissioners were accordingly appointed, and a request was made to the legislatures of the other States to accede to the proposition. Accordingly, several of the States appointed Commissioners, who met at Annapolis in the summer of 1786, to consult what measures should be taken to unite the States in some general and efficient commercial system. But as the States were not all represented, and the powers of the Commissioners were, in their opinion, too limited to propose a system of regulations adequate to the purposes of government, they agreed to recommend a general convention to be held at Philadelphia the next year, with powers to frame a general plan of government for the United States. This measure appeared to the Commissioners absolutely necessary. The old confederation was essentially defective: it was destitute of almost every principle necessary to give effect to legislation.

It was defective in the article of legislating over States, instead of individuals. All history testifies that recommendations will not operate as laws, and compulsion cannot be exercised over States without violence, war, and anarchy. The confederation was also destitute of a sanction to its laws. When resolutions were passed in Congress,

there was no power to compel obedience by fine, by suspension of privileges, or other means: it was also destitute of a guarantee for the State governments. Had one State been invaded by its neighbour, the Union was not constitutionally bound to assist in repelling the invasion, and supporting the constitution of the invaded State. The confederation was further deficient in the principle of apportioning the quotas of money to be furnished by each State; in a want of power to form commercial laws, and to raise troops for the defence and security of the Union; in the equal suffrage of the States, which placed Rhode Island on a footing in Congress with Virginia; and to crown all the defects, we may add the want of a judiciary power, to define the laws of the Union, and to reconcile the contradictory decisions of a number of independent judicatories.

These and many inferior defects were obvious to the Commissioners, and therefore they urged a general convention, with powers to form, and offer to the consideration of the States, a system of general government that should be less exceptionable: accordingly, in May, 1787, delegates from all the States, except Rhode Island, assembled at Philadelphia, and chose General Washington for their President. After four months deliberation, in which the clashing interests of the several States appeared in all their force, the convention agreed to recommend the plan of federal government, which we have already recited.

As soon as the plan of the federal constitution was submitted to the legislatures of the several States, they proceeded to take measures for collecting the sense of the people upon the propriety of adopting it. In the small State of Delaware, a convention was called in November, which, after a few days deliberation, ratified the constitution without a dissenting voice.

In the convention of Pennsylvania, held the same month, there was a spirited opposition to the new form of government. The debates were long and interesting. Great abilities and firmness were displayed on both sides; but, on the 13th of December, the constitution was received by two-thirds of the members. The minority were dissatisfied, and, with an obstinacy that ill became the representatives of a free people, published their reasons of dissent, which were calculated to inflame a party already violent, and which, in fact, produced some disturbances in the western part of the State.

In New Jersey, the convention which met in December, were unanimous in adopting the constitution; as was likewise that of Georgia.

In Connecticut, there was some opposition; but the constitution was, on the 9th of January, 1788, ratified by three-fourths of the votes in convention, and the minority peaceably acquiesced in the decision.

In Massachusetts, the opposition was large and respectable. The convention, consisting of more than three hundred delegates, were assembled in January, and continued their debates, with great candour and liberality, about five weeks. At length the question was carried for the constitution by a small majority; and the minority, with that manly condescension which becomes great minds, submitted to the measure, and united to support the government.

In New Hampshire, the federal cause was for some time doubtful. The greatest number of the delegates in convention were, at first, on the side of the opposition; and some, who might have had their objections removed by the discussion of the subject, were instructed to reject the constitution. Although the instructions of constituents cannot, on the true principles of representation, be binding upon a deputy, in any legislative assembly, because his constituents are but a *part* of the State, and
have

have not heard the arguments and objections of the *whole*; whereas his act is to affect the *whole* State, and therefore is to be directed by the sense or wisdom of the whole, collected in the legislative assembly; yet the delegates in the New Hampshire convention conceived very erroneously, that the sense of the freemen in the towns, those little districts, where no act of legislation can be performed, imposed a restraint upon their own wills.* An adjournment was therefore moved and carried. This gave the people opportunity to gain a farther knowledge of the merits of the constitution; and at the second meeting of the convention it was ratified by a respectable majority.

In Maryland, several men of abilities appeared in the opposition, and were unremitted in their endeavours to persuade the people, that the proposed plan of government was artfully calculated to deprive them of their dearest rights; yet in convention it appeared, that five-sixths of the voices were in favour of it.

In South Carolina, the opposition was respectable; but two-thirds of the convention appeared to advocate and vote for the constitution.

In Virginia, many of the principal characters opposed the ratification of the constitution with great abilities and industry; but, after a full discussion of the subject, a small majority, of a numerous convention, appeared for its adoption.

In New York, two-thirds of the delegates in convention were, at their first meeting, determined to reject the constitution. Here, therefore, the debates were the most interesting, and the event extremely doubtful. The argument was managed with uncommon address and abilities on both sides of the question. But during the session, the ninth and tenth States had acceded to the proposed plan, so that by the constitution, Congress were empowered to issue an ordinance for organizing the new government. This event placed the opposition on new ground; and the expediency of uniting with the other States—the generous motives of conciliating all differences, and the danger of a rejection, influenced a respectable number, who were originally opposed to the constitution, to join the federal interest. The constitution was accordingly ratified by a small majority; but the ratification was accompanied here, as in Virginia, with a bill of rights, declaratory of the sense of the convention as to certain great principles, and with a catalogue of amendments, which were to be recommended to the consideration of the new Congress, and the several State Legislatures.

North Carolina met in convention in July, to deliberate on the new constitution. After a short session, they rejected it by a majority of one hundred and seventy-six against seventy-six. In November, 1789, however, this State again met in convention, and ratified the constitution by a large majority.

Rhode Island was doomed to be the sport of a blind and singular policy. The legislature, in consistency with the measures which had been before pursued, did not call a convention to collect the sense of the State upon the proposed constitution; but in an unconstitutional and absurd manner, submitted the plan of government to the consideration of the people. Accordingly, it was brought before town-meetings, and in most of them rejected. In some of the large towns, particularly in Newport and Providence, the people collected and resolved with great propriety, that they could not take up the subject; and that the proposition for embracing or rejecting the federal constitution could come before no tribunal but that of the State in convention or legislature. On the 24th of May, 1790, a convention of this State met at Newport, and on the 29th, adopted the constitution by a majority of *two* only.

* This pernicious opinion has prevailed in all the States, and done infinite mischief.

Vermont, in convention at Bennington, January 10th, 1791, ratified the constitution of the United States by a great majority.*

From the moment the proceedings of the general convention at Philadelphia transpired, the public mind was exceedingly agitated, and suspended between hope and fear, until nine States had ratified their plan of a federal government. Indeed the anxiety continued until Virginia and New York had acceded to the system. But this did not prevent the demonstrations of their joy on the accession of each State.

On the ratification in Massachusetts, the citizens of Boston, in the elevation of their joy, formed a procession in honour of the happy event, which was novel, splendid, and magnificent. This example was afterwards followed, and in some instances improved upon, in Baltimore, Charleston, Philadelphia, Newhaven, Portimouth, and New York, successively. Nothing could equal the beauty and grandeur of these exhibitions. A ship was mounted upon wheels, and drawn through the streets; mechanics erected stages, and exhibited specimens of labour in their several occupations as they moved along the road; flags with emblems, descriptive of all the arts and of the federal union, were invented and displayed in honour of the government; multitudes of all ranks in life assembled to view the splendid scenes; while sobriety, joy, and harmony, marked the brilliant exhibitions, by which the Americans celebrated the establishment of their Empire.

On the 3d of March, 1789, the delegates from the eleven States, which at that time had ratified the constitution, assembled at New York, where a convenient and elegant building had been prepared for their accommodation. On opening and counting the votes for president, it was found that GEORGE WASHINGTON was *unanimously* elected to that dignified office, and that JOHN ADAMS† was chosen Vice President. The annunciation of the choice of the first and second Magistrates of the United States occasioned a general diffusion of joy among the friends to the Union, and fully evinced that these eminent characters were the choice of the people.

On

* The following exhibits at one view the order, time, &c. in which the several States ratified the Federal Constitution:

					Majority.
Delaware,	December	3,	1787,	unanimously.	
Pennsylvania,	December	13,		46 to 23	23
New Jersey,	December	19,		unanimously.	
Georgia,	January	2,	1788,	unanimously.	
Connecticut,	January	9,		128 to 40	88
Massachusetts,	February	6,		187 to 168	19
Maryland,	April	28,		63 to 12	51
South Carolina,	May	23,		149 to 73	76
New Hampshire,	June	21,		57 to 46	11
Virginia,	June	25,		89 to 79	10
New York,	July	26,		30 to 25	5
North Carolina,	November	27,	1789,	193 to 75	118
Rhode Island,	May	29,	1790,		2
Vermont,	January	10,	1791,	by a great majority.	
Kentucky.					

† Mr. Adams is a descendant of one of the first families who founded the colony of Massachusetts Bay, in 1630. He was born at Braintree, in Massachusetts, October 19th, 1735.

He was by profession a lawyer, and such were his abilities and integrity, that he attracted the attention, the esteem, and the confidence of his fellow citizens. Not contented with barely maintaining the rights of individuals, he early signalized himself in the defence of the rights of his country and of mankind at large, by writing his admirable Dissertation on the Canon and Feudal Laws; a work well adapted to convince or confound the advocates either for civil or ecclesiastical tyranny. It evinced that he had abilities to afford powerful aid in the formation of republics on the genuine principles of justice and virtue

The

On the 30th of April, 1789, GEORGE WASHINGTON was inaugurated PRESIDENT of the United States of America, in the city of New York. The ceremony was performed in the open gallery of Federal Hall, in the view of many thousand spectators. The oath was administered by Chancellor Livingston. Several circumstances concurred to render the scene unusually solemn—the presence of the beloved Father and Deliverer of his country—the impressions of gratitude for his past services—the vast concourse of spectators—the devout fervency with which he repeated the oath, and the reverential

The zeal and firmness with which Mr. Adams defended the liberties of his country, did not prevent his acting in the service of her enemies, where he thought they were treated with too much severity. Called upon by his profession, he boldly stood forth as the advocate of Capt. Preston, who had been imprisoned as the murderer of some of the citizens of Boston, on the memorable 5th of March, 1770. His client's cause was most unpopular. The whole town had been in a state of irritation, on account of the conduct of Governor Hutchinson, and the troops which were stationed in it. Their resentment now burst into a flame. But he felt the cause to be a just one; and the danger of incurring the displeasure of his countrymen could not deter him from undertaking it. He conducted the cause with great address by keeping off the trial till the passions of the people had time to subside. The trial at length commenced; and lasted several days, during which he displayed the most extensive knowledge of the laws of his country, and of humanity; and at the conclusion he had the satisfaction of proving to Great Britain herself, that the citizens of Massachusetts would be just and humane to their enemies amidst the grossest insults and provocations. Capt. Preston was acquitted. In this most delicate and important trial, Mr. Adams manifested that firmness of mind, that disinterested and enlightened patriotism, and that love of justice and humanity, which have uniformly marked his conduct in all those great departments which he has since filled with so much ability and dignity.

He was a member of the first Congress in 1774; and was one of the principal promoters of the famous resolution of the 4th of July, 1776, which declared the American Colonies FREE, SOVEREIGN, AND INDEPENDENT STATES.

Having been for a considerable length of time one of the commissioners of the war department, and a principal suggestor of the terms to be offered to France, for forming a treaty of alliance and commerce, he was sent to the Court of Versailles, as one of the ministers plenipotentiary of the United States, to consummate that important business.

On his return from France he was called upon by Massachusetts to assist in forming a plan of government; and to him this State is chiefly indebted for their present excellent constitution.

After this important business was accomplished, he returned to Europe, vested with full powers from Congress to assist at any conference which might be opened for the establishment of peace; and he soon after received other powers to negotiate a loan of money for the use of the United States, and to represent them as their Minister Plenipotentiary to their High Mightinesses the States General of the United Provinces. Such important trusts shew in what high estimation he was held by his country, and the able and satisfactory manner in which he executed them, proved that their confidence was well placed.

While in Europe, Mr. Adams published his learned and celebrated work, entitled "A Defence of the Constitutions of Government of the United States of America," or more properly speaking, "The History of the Principal Republics in the World," in 3 vols. 8vo. printed for J. Stockdale, in which he advocates, as the fundamental principles of a free government—equal representation, of which numbers, or property, or both, should be the rule—a total separation of the executive from the legislative power, and of the judicial from both—and a balance in the legislature, by three independent equal branches. "If there is one certain truth," says he, "to be collected from the history of all ages, it is this: That the people's rights and liberties, and the democratical mixture in a constitution, can never be preserved without a strong executive, or in other words, without separating the executive power from the legislative."

A character who rendered such eminent services to his country, both at home and abroad, in seasons of the greatest gloominess and danger, and who possessed such an extensive knowledge of politics and government, did not remain unnoticed by his grateful countrymen. He was called, in 1789, by the choice of his country, to the vice-presidency of the United States, which office he still retains.

"They who have had an opportunity of knowing his Excellency, Mr. Adams," says an European writer, "trace in his features the most unequivocal marks of probity and candour. He unites to that gravity, which is suitable to the dignity of his station, an affability which prejudices you in his favour. Although of a silent turn, as is common to men who engage in important affairs, yet he has a natural eloquence for the discussion of important subjects, and for the recommending and enforcing the measures and systems which are dictated by sound policy. He has neither the corrupted nor corrupting principles of Lord Chesterfield, but the plain and virtuous demeanour of Sir William Temple. Like him also he is simple in negotiation, where he finds candour in those who treat with him; otherwise he has the severity of a true republican, his high idea of virtue giving him a rigidity which makes it difficult for him to accommodate himself to those intrigues which European politics have introduced into negotiation."

manner

manner in which he bowed to kiss the sacred volume—these circumstances, together with that of his being chosen to the most dignified office in America, and perhaps in the world, by the unanimous voice of more than three millions of enlightened *freemen*, all conspired to place this among the most august and interesting scenes which have ever been exhibited on this globe.*

Hitherto the deliberations of the legislature of the Union have been marked with wisdom, and the measures they have adopted have been productive of great national prosperity. The wise appointments to office, which, in general, have been made—the establishment of a revenue and judiciary system, and of a national bank—the assumption of the debts of the individual States, and the encouragement that has been given to manufactures, commerce, literature, and to useful inventions, open the fairest prospect of the peace, union, and increasing respectability of the American States.

GRAND DIVISIONS OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE AMERICAN REPUBLIC, of which we have given a general account, consists of three grand divisions, denominated the *Northern*, or more properly *Eastern*, *Middle*, and *Southern* States.

The *first* division, (the Northern or Eastern States) comprehends

VERMONT,	MASSACHUSETTS,
NEW HAMPSHIRE,,	RHODE ISLAND,
DISTRICT OF MAINE, (belonging	CONNECTICUT.
to Massachusetts)	

These are called the New England States, and comprehend that part of America, which, since the year 1614, has been known by the name of NEW ENGLAND.

The *second* division (the Middle States) comprehends

NEW YORK,	DELAWARE,
NEW JERSEY,	TERRITORY, N. W. of OHIO.
PENNSYLVANIA,	

The *third* division (the Southern States) comprehends

MARYLAND,	TERRITORY S. of OHIO,
VIRGINIA,	SOUTH CAROLINA,
KENTUCKY,	GEORGIA.
NORTH CAROLINA,	

Of these we shall treat in their order.

* "It seemed, from the number of witnesses," said a spectator of the scene, "to be a solemn appeal to heaven and earth at once. Upon the subject of this great and good man, I may, perhaps, be an enthusiast; but, I confess, I was under an awful and religious persuasion, that the gracious Ruler of the Universe was looking down at that moment with peculiar complacency on an act, which, to a part of his creatures, was so very important. Under this impression, when the Chancellor pronounced, in a very feeling manner, "LONG LIVE GEORGE WASHINGTON," my sensibility was wound up to such a pitch, that I could do no more than wave my hat with the rest, without the power of joining in the repeated acclamations which rent the air."



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EXPLANATION

- The boundary between the
United States & British
Dominions
Disjunctive lines between
each state
Towns
Forts
Indian Towns & Villages

- 1 Orange County
2 Columbia County
Long Island
6 Kings County
7 Queens County
8 Suffolk County
9 Richmond County
COUNTIES OF MASSACHUSETTS
A Barnstable County
B Plymouth County
C Bristol County
D Worcester County
E Hampshire County

- COUNTIES IN N YORK
1 New York County
2 West Chester County
3 Dutchess County

A MAP
of the
NORTHERN AND MIDDLE
STATES;
Comprehending the Western Territory and the
British Dominions
IN
NORTH AMERICA.
from the best Authorities.



NEW ENGLAND ; or NORTHERN or EASTERN STATES.

SITUATION AND BOUNDARIES.

NEW ENGLAND lies between 41 and 46 degrees N. Lat. and between 1 degree 30 minutes, and 8 degrees E. Lon. from Philadelphia ; and is bounded north by Lower Canada ; east, by the province of New Brunswick, and the Atlantic Ocean ; south, by the same ocean, and Long Island Sound ; west, by the State of New York. It lies in the form of a quarter of a circle. Its west line, beginning at the mouth of Byram river, which empties into Long Island Sound at the south-west corner of Connecticut, Lat. 41 degrees, runs a little east of north, until it strikes the 45th degree of Latitude, and then curves to the eastward almost to the Gulf of St. Lawrence.

CLIMATE AND DISEASE.] New England has a very healthful climate, as is evinced by the longevity of the inhabitants. It is estimated that about one in seven of the inhabitants live to the age of seventy years ; and about one in thirteen or fourteen to eighty years and upwards.

North-west, west, and south-west winds are the most prevalent. East and north-east winds, which are unelastic and disagreeable, are frequent at certain seasons of the year, particularly in April and May, on the sea coasts. The weather is less variable than in the middle and especially the southern States, and more so than in Canada. The extremes of heat and cold, according to Fahrenheit's thermometer, are from 20° below, to 100° above 0. The medium is from 48° to 50°. The inhabitants of New England, on account of the dryness of their atmosphere, can endure, without inconvenience, a greater degree of heat than the inhabitants of a moister climate. It is supposed by some philosophers, that the difference of moisture in the atmosphere in Pennsylvania and New England is such, as that a person might bear at least ten degrees of heat more in the latter than in the former.

The quantity of rain which falls in England annually, is computed to be 24 inches ; in France 18 inches, and in New England from 48 to 50 inches ; and yet in New England they suffer more from drought than in either of the forementioned countries, although they have more than double the quantity of rain. These facts evince the remarkable dryness of the atmosphere in this eastern division of the United States, and in part account for its singular healthfulness. Winter commonly commences, in its severity, about the middle of December—sometimes earlier, and sometimes not till Christmas. Cattle are fed or housed, in the northern parts of New England, from about the 20th of November to the 20th of May ; in the southern parts not quite so long. There have been frosts in almost every month in the year, though not in the same year ; but not very injurious.

The diseases most prevalent in New England are the following, viz.

Alvine fluxes,	Inflammatory	} Fevers
St. Anthony's Fire,	Slow nervous, and	
Asthma,	Mixed	
Atrophy,	Pulmonary Consumption,	
Catarrh,	Quinsy,	
Colic,	Rheumatism.	

These disorders, of which the pulmonary consumption is much the most destructive, are commonly the effect of imprudent exposures to cold and rainy weather, evening air, and the wearing of damp linen; or from frequent excesses in the use of strong liquors, especially of fresh distilled rum, which in too many instances prove the bane of morals, and the ruin of families.

The small pox, which is a specific, infectious disease, is not allowed at present to be communicated by inoculation, except in hospitals erected for the purpose in bye places, and in cases where there is a probability of a general spread of the infection in a town. Nor is this disease permitted to be communicated generally by inoculation, in any of the United States, except New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Delaware, and South Carolina.

In populous towns, the prevalent diseases are more numerous and complicated, owing to want of fresh air and exercise, and to luxurious and fashionable living.

A late writer * has observed that "in other countries, men are divided according to their wealth or indigence, into three classes; the opulent, the middling, and the poor; the idleness, luxuries, and debaucheries of the first, and the misery and too frequent intemperance of the last, destroy the greater proportion of these two. The intermediate class is below those indulgencies which prove fatal to the rich, and above those sufferings to which the unfortunate poor fall victims: this is therefore the happiest division of the three. Of the rich and poor, the American Republic furnishes a much smaller proportion than any other district of the known world. In Connecticut particularly, the distribution of wealth and its concomitants is more equal than elsewhere, and therefore, as far as excess or want of wealth may prove destructive or salutary to life, the inhabitants of this State may plead exemption from diseases." What this writer says of Connecticut in particular, will, with very few exceptions, apply to New England at large.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, &c.] New England is a high, hilly, and in some parts a mountainous country, formed by nature to be inhabited by a hardy race of free, independent republicans. The mountains are comparatively small, running nearly north and south in ridges parallel to each other. Between these ridges flow the great rivers in majestic meanders, receiving the innumerable rivulets and larger streams which proceed from the mountains on each side. To a spectator on the top of a neighbouring mountain, the vales between the ridges, while in a state of nature, exhibit a romantic appearance. They seem an ocean of woods, swelled and depressed in its surface like that of the great ocean itself. A richer, though less romantic view is presented, when the valleys, by industrious husbandmen, have been cleared of their natural growth; and the fruit of their labour appears in loaded orchards, extensive meadows, covered with large herds of sheep and neat cattle, and rich fields of flax, corn, and the various kind of grain.

These valleys are of various breadths, from two to twenty miles; and by the annual inundations of the rivers and small streams which flow through them, there is frequently an accumulation of rich, fat soil, left upon their surface when the waters retire.

There are three principal ranges of mountains, passing nearly from south-west to north-east, through New England. These consist of a multitude of parallel ridges, each having many spurs, deviating from the course of the general range; which spurs are again broken into irregular, hilly land. The main ridges commence in high bluff

* Dr. Foulke, in a discourse which he lately read before the American Philosophical Society.

heads near the sea coast; and sometimes by a gradual ascent in the interior part of the country. One of the main ranges runs between Connecticut and Hudson's rivers. This range branches, and bounds the vales through which flows the Housatonic river.

In Lyme, on the east side of the mouth of Connecticut river, another range of mountains commences, forming the eastern boundary of Connecticut vale. This range runs northerly, at the distance, generally, of about ten or twelve miles east from the river, and passes through Massachusetts, from where the range takes the name of Chicabec Mountains; thence crossing into New Hampshire, at the distance of about twenty miles from the Massachusetts line, it runs up into a very high peak, called *Monadnock*, which terminates this ridge of the range. A western ridge continues, and in about latitude $43^{\circ} 20'$, runs up into *Sunapee* mountains. About 50 miles further, in the same ridge, is *Moose-belock* mountain.

A third range begins near Stonington in Connecticut. It takes its course northeasterly, and is sometimes broken and discontinued; it then rises again, and ranges in the same direction into New Hampshire.

These ranges of mountains are full of springs of water, that give rise to numberless streams of various sizes, which, interlocking each other in every direction, and falling over the rocks in romantic cascades, flow meandering into the rivers below. No country on the globe is better watered than New England.

On the sea coast the land is low, and in many parts level and sandy. In the valleys, between the fore-mentioned ranges of mountains, the land is generally broken, and in many places rocky, but of a strong rich soil, capable of being cultivated to good advantage, which also is the case with many spots even on the tops of the mountains.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in New England are Penobscot, Kennebeck, Androscoggin or Americoggin, Saco, (pronounced *Sawco*) Merrimack, Connecticut, Housatonic, and Onion rivers, besides many smaller ones.

FLOWERING SHRUBS AND PLANTS.] Dr. Cutler has furnished the following catalogue of flowering shrubs and plants in New England, which, from the attention he has paid to natural history, we have reason to rely upon as accurate.

Blue Flag (*Iris virginica*)—Globe Flower (*Cephalanthus occidentalis*)—Pigeonberry (*Cissus ficoides*)—Cornel (*Cornus Canadensis*)—American Honey-suckle (*Azalea viscosa*)—American Tea (*Ceanothus Americanus*)—Cherry Honey-suckle (*Lonicera diervilla*)—Great Convolvulus (*Convolvulus arvensis*)—Stag's horn Sumach (*Rhus typhinum*)—Mealtree (*Viburnum lantana*)—White flowered Elder (*Sambucus nigra*)—Red berried Elder (*Sambucus Canadensis*.)—Meadow Blue-bells (*Gentiana ciliata*)—Lilies, several species (*Lilium*)—Bethlem Star (*Ornithogolum luteum*)—American Senna (*Rhodora Canadensis*)—Great Laurel (*Kalmia latifolia*)—Dwarf Laurel (*Kalmia angustifolia*)—White Pepper Bush (*Andromeda arborea*)—Bog Evergreen (*Andromeda calyculata*)—Sweet Pepper Bush (*Clethra alnifolia*)—Mountain Laurel, or "Sorbus-tree" (*Sorbus aucupora* ?)—Meadow Sweet (*Spiraea filicifolia*)—Queen of the Meadows (*Spiraea tormentosa*)—Service Tree (*Mespilus Canadensis*)—Wild Rose (*Rosa Carolina*)—Superb Raspberry (*Rubus odoratus*)—Baneberry (*Aëcea spicata*)—Side-saddle Flower (*Sarracena purpurea*)—Red Columbine (*Aquilegia Canadensis*)—Anemone, several species (*Anemone hepatica*, *sylvestris* et *nemorosa*)—Traveller's Joy (*Clematis Virginica*)—Dragon's Head (*Dracocephalum Virginicum*)—Snap Dragon (*Antirrhinum Canadensis*)—American Cardamine (*Cardamine Virginica*)—Lupin (*Lupinus angustifolia*)—Locust (*Robinia pseud-acacia*)—Beach Pea (*Pisum maritimum*)—Pied Pea (*Pisum ochrus*)—Wood Pea (*Orobis sylvaticus*)—Variegated Pea (*Lathyrus heterophyllus*)—Meadow Sunflower (*Ageratum ciliare*)—American Anarrhithus (*Gnaphalium*

helian themifolium)—New England Aster (Aster Nova Anglicum)—Smooth-leaved Golden-rod (*Solidago altissima*)—New England Sunflower (*Helianthus divaricatus*)—American Pride (*Lobelia cardinalis*)—Ladies Plume (*Orchis pycodes*)—Ladies Slipper (*Cypripedium calceolus*)—Blue-eye (*Sisyrinchium Bermudiauna*)—Swamp Willow, or Dog-wood (*Salix cinerea*?)—Red-flowered Maple (*Acerubrum*).

PRODUCTIONS FROM CULTURE.] New England, generally speaking, is better adapted for grazing than for grain, though a sufficient quantity of the latter is raised for home consumption, if we except wheat, which is imported in considerable quantities from the middle and southern States. Indian corn, rye, oats, barley, buck wheat, flax and hemp, generally succeed very well. Wheat is cultivated to advantage in many parts of the interior country, but on the sea coast it is subject to blast. This has been attributed to various causes, but the true one probably is, the sudden, cold, easterly winds, after a hot day, which cause a stagnation and extravasation of the juices of the stalk. Apples are common, and in general plenty in New England, and cyder constitutes the principal drink of the inhabitants. Peaches do not thrive as well as formerly. The other common fruits are more or less cultivated in different parts.

New England is a fine grazing country; the valleys, between the hills, are generally intersected with brooks of water, the banks of which are lined with a tract of rich meadow or intervale land. The high and rocky ground is, in many parts, covered with clover, and generally affords the finest of pasture. It will not be a matter of wonder, therefore, that New England boasts of raising some of the finest cattle in the world; nor will she be envied, when the labour of raising them is taken into view. Two months of the hottest season in the year, the farmers are employed in procuring food for their cattle, and the cold winter is spent in dealing it out to them. The pleasure and profit of doing this is, however, a satisfying compensation to the honest and industrious farmer. Butter and cheese are made for exportation. Considerable attention has lately been paid to the raising of sheep.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, AND DIVERSIONS.] New England is the most populous part of the United States. It contains, according to the census of 1790, 1,009,522 souls. The great body of these are landholders and cultivators of the soil. As they possess, in fee simple, the farms which they cultivate, they are naturally all attached to their country; the cultivation of the soil makes them robust and healthy, and enables them to defend it.

New England may with propriety be called a nursery of men, whence are annually transplanted, into other parts of the United States, thousands of its natives. Vast numbers of them, since the war, have emigrated into the northern parts of New York, into Kentucky, and the Western Territory, and into Georgia; and some are scattered into every State, and every town of note in the Union.

The inhabitants of New England are almost universally of English descent; and it is owing to this circumstance, and to the great and general attention that has been paid to education, that the English language has been preserved among them so free of corruption.

The New Englanders are generally tall, stout, and well built. Their education, laws, and situation, serve to inspire them with high notions of liberty. Their jealousy is awakened at the first motion towards an invasion of their rights. They are indeed often jealous to excess; a circumstance which is a fruitful source of imaginary grievances, and of groundless suspicions and complaints against government. But these ebullitions of jealousy, though censurable, and productive of some political evils, shew that the essence of true liberty exists in New England; for jealousy is a guardian of liberty,

liberty, and a characteristic of free republicans. A chief foundation of liberty and equality in the New England States is a law by which intestate estates descend to all the children, or other heirs, in equal proportions, except to the eldest son, who has two shares. In 1789 Massachusetts abolished this exception. In consequence of these laws, the people of New England enjoy an equality of condition unknown in any other part of the world: and it is in this way that the people have preserved that happy mediocrity among themselves, which, by inducing economy and industry, removes from them temptations to luxury, and forms them to habits of sobriety and temperance. At the same time, their industry and frugality exempt them from want, and from the necessity of submitting to any encroachments on their liberties.

In New England, learning is more generally diffused among all ranks of people than in any other part of the globe; arising from the excellent establishment of schools in almost every township.

In these schools, which are generally supported by a public tax, and under the direction of a school-committee, are taught the elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic, and in the more wealthy towns, they are beginning to introduce the higher branches of grammar, geography, &c.

A very valuable source of information to the people is the newspapers, of which not less than thirty thousand are printed every week in New England, and circulate in almost every town and village in the country.*

A person of mature age, who cannot both read and write, is rarely to be found. By means of this general establishment of schools, the extensive circulation of Newspapers, and the consequent spread of learning, every township throughout the country is furnished with men capable of conducting the affairs of their town with judgement and discretion. These men are the channels of political information to the lower class of people; if such a class may be said to exist in New England, where every man thinks himself at least as good as his neighbour, and believes that all mankind are, or ought to be, equal. The people, from their childhood, form habits of canvassing public affairs, and commence politicians. This naturally leads them to be very inquisitive. It is with knowledge as with riches, the more a man has, the more he wishes to obtain; his desire has no bound. This desire after knowledge, in a greater or less degree, prevails throughout all classes of people in New England; and from their various modes of expressing it, some of which are blunt and familiar, bordering on impertinence, strangers have been induced to mention *impertinent inquisitiveness* as a distinguishing characteristic of New England people. But this is true only with regard to that class of people who have confined themselves to domestic life, and have not had opportunity of mingling with the world; and such people are not peculiar to New England; they compose a great part of the citizens of every state and country.

Before the late war, which introduced into New England a flood of corruptions, with many improvements, the sabbath was observed with great strictness; no unnecessary travelling, no secular business, no visiting, no diversions were permitted on that sacred day. They considered it as consecrated to divine worship, and were generally punctual and serious in their attendance upon it. Their laws were strict in guarding the sabbath against every innovation. The supposed severity with which these laws were composed and executed, together with some other traits in their religious charac-

* According to an accurate estimate lately made, it appears that no less than 77,000, newspapers are printed weekly, in the American States, which, in a year, would amount to upwards of four millions, and at 4 cents each would make 160,000 dollars.

ter, have acquired for the New Englanders, the name of a superstitious, biggotted people. But superstition and bigotry are so indefinite in their significations, and so variously applied by persons of different principles and educations, that it is not easy to determine whether they ever deserved that character. Leaving every person to enjoy his own opinion in regard to this matter, we will only observe, that, since the war, a catholic tolerant spirit, occasioned by a more enlarged intercourse with mankind, has greatly increased, and is becoming universal; and if they do not break the proper bound, and liberalize away all true religion, of which there is very great danger, they will counteract that strong propensity in human nature, which leads men to vibrate from one extreme to its opposite.

There is one distinguishing characteristic in the religious character of this people, which we must not omit to mention; and that is, the custom of annually celebrating Fasts and Thanksgivings. In the spring, the governors of the several New England States, except Rhode Island, issue their proclamations, appointing a day to be religiously observed in fasting, humiliation, and prayer throughout their respective States, in which the predominating vices, that particularly call for humiliation, are enumerated. In autumn, after harvest, that gladsome era in the husbandman's life, the governors again issue their proclamations, appointing a day of public thanksgiving, enumerating the public blessings received in the course of the foregoing year.

This pious custom originated with their venerable ancestors, the first settlers of New England; and has been handed down as sacred, through the successive generations of their posterity. A custom so rational, and so happily calculated to cherish in the minds of the people a sense of their dependence on the GREAT BENEFACITOR of the world for all their blessings, it is hoped will ever be sacredly preserved.

The people of New England generally obtain their estates by hard and persevering labour: they of consequence know their value, and spend with frugality. Yet in no country do the indigent and unfortunate fare better. Their laws oblige every town to provide a competent maintenance for their poor, and the necessitous stranger is protected, and relieved by their humane institutions. It may in truth be said, that in no part of the world are the people happier, better furnished with the necessaries and conveniencies of life, or more independent, than the farmers in New England. As the great body of the people are hardy, independent freeholders, their manners are, as they ought to be, congenial to their employment, plain, simple, and unpolished. Strangers are received and entertained among them with a great deal of artless sincerity, and friendly, unformal hospitality. Their children, those imitative creatures, to whose education particular attention is paid, early imbibe the manners and habits of those around them; and the stranger, with pleasure, notices the honest and decent respect that is paid him by the children as he passes through the country,

As the people, by representation, make their own laws and appoint their own officers, they cannot be oppressed; and living under governments which have few lucrative places, they have few motives to bribery, corrupt canvassings, or intrigue. Real abilities and a moral character unblemished are the qualifications requisite in the view of most people, for officers of public trust. The expression of a wish to be promoted, is, in some parts of New England, the direct way to be disappointed.

The inhabitants, in some parts of New England, are generally fond of the arts and sciences, and have cultivated them with great success. Their colleges have flourished. The illustrious characters they have produced, who have distinguished themselves in politics, law, divinity, the mathematics, and philosophy, natural and civil history, and in the fine arts, particularly poetry, evince the truth of these observations.

Many

Many of the women in New England are handsome. They generally have fair, fresh, and healthful countenances, mingled with much female softness and delicacy. Those who have had the advantages of a good education (and they are numerous) are genteel, easy, and agreeable in their manners, and are sprightly and sensible in conversation. They are early taught to manage domestic concerns with neatness and economy. Ladies of the first rank and fortune make it a part of their daily business to superintend the affairs of the family. Employment at the needle, in cookery, and at the spinning wheel, with them is honourable. Idleness, even in those of independent fortunes, is universally disreputable. The women in country towns, manufacture the greatest part of the clothing of their families. Their linen and woollen cloths are strong and decent. Their butter and cheese is not inferior to any in the world.

Dancing is the principal and favourite amusement in New England; and of this the young people of both sexes are extremely fond. Gaming is practised by none but those who cannot, or rather will not, find a reputable employment. The gamester, the horse jockey, and the knave, are equally despised, and their company is avoided by all who would sustain fair and irreproachable characters.

The athletic and healthy diversions of cricket, foot ball, quoits, wrestling, jumping, hopping, foot races, and prison balls, are universally practised in the country, and some of them in the most populous places, and by people of almost all ranks.

HISTORY.] New England owes its first settlement to religious persecution. Soon after the commencement of the reformation* in England, which was not until the year 1534, the Protestants were divided into two parties, one the followers of Luther, and the other of Calvin. The former had chosen gradually, and almost imperceptibly, to recede from the church of Rome; while the latter, more zealous, and convinced of the importance of a thorough reformation, and at the same time possessing much firmness and high notions of religious liberty, was for effecting a thorough change at once. Their consequent endeavours to expunge from the church all the inventions which had been brought into it since the days of the Apostles, and to introduce the "Scripture purity," derived for them the name of PURITANS. From these the inhabitants of New England descended.

The first company that came to New England planted themselves at Plymouth. They were a part of the Rev. Mr. Robinson's congregation, which for 12 years before had lived in Holland, for the sake of enjoying liberty of conscience. They came over in the year 1620.

* The reformation was begun by Martin Luther, a native of Saxony, born in the year 1483. He was educated in the Roman Catholic religion, and was an Augustin Friar, when, in 1517, having written ninety-five Theses against the Pope's indulgencies, he exhibited them to public view on the church door at Wittenburg, in Saxony, and thus began the reformation in Germany. In 1528, the reformed religion was introduced into Switzerland by Zuinglius, Oecolampadius, and others.

The year following, the Diet of the German Empire assembled at Spire, and issued a decree against the reformation. Against this decree, the Elector of Saxony, George, Marquis of Brandenburg, Ernest, and Francis, Duke of Lunenburg, the Landgrave of Hesse, and the Count of Anhalt, who were joined by several of the cities, publicly read their *Protest*, and in this way, acquired for themselves and their successors down to the present time, the name of *Protestants*.

Calvin, another celebrated reformer, was born at Noyon, in France, in the year 1509. He improved upon Luther's plan—expunged many of the Romish ceremonies which he had indulged—entertained different ideas concerning some of the great doctrines of Christianity, and set the Protestants at a greater remove from the Roman Catholic religion. The followers of Luther have been distinguished by the name of *Lutherans*; and the followers of Calvin by the name of *Calvinists*.

Such was the rapid growth of the Protestant interest, that in 1563, only 46 years after the commencement of the reformation by Luther, there were in France 2150 assemblies of Protestants.

It was their intention to have settled at the mouth of Hudson's river ; but the Dutch, intending to plant a colony there of their own, privately hired the master of the ship to contrive delays in England, and then to conduct them to these northern coasts, and there, under pretence of shoals and winter, to discourage them from venturing to the place of destination. This is confidently asserted by the historians of that time. Although Cape Cod harbour, in which they first anchored, was good, the country around was sandy and barren. These were discouraging circumstances ; but the season being far advanced, they prudently determined to make the best of their present situation.

As they were not within the limits of their patent, and consequently not under the jurisdiction of the Virginia company, they concluded it necessary to establish a separate government for themselves. Accordingly, before they landed, having on their knees devoutly given thanks to God for their safe arrival, they formed themselves into a body politic, by a *solemn contract*,* to which they all subscribed, thereby making it the basis of their government. They chose Mr. John Carver, a gentleman of piety and approved abilities, to be their governor for the first year. This was on the 11th of November, 1620.

Their next object was to fix on a convenient place for settlement. In doing this they were obliged to encounter numerous difficulties, and to suffer incredible hardships. Many of them were sick in consequence of the fatigues of a long voyage : Their provisions were bad—the season was uncommonly cold—the Indians, though afterwards friendly, were now hostile—and they were unacquainted with the coast. These difficulties they surmounted, and on the 31st of December they were all safely landed at a place, which, in grateful commemoration of Plymouth in England, the town which they last left in their native land, they called *Plymouth*. This is the first English town that was settled in New England.

In some of their excursions in search of a suitable place for settlement, they found buried several baskets of Indian corn, to the amount of ten bushels, which fortunately served them for planting the next spring, and perhaps was the means of preserving them from perishing with hunger. They made diligent inquiry for the owners, whom they found, and afterwards paid the full value of the corn.

Before the end of November, Susanna, the Wife of William White, was delivered of a son, whom they called *Peregrine*. He is supposed to have been the first child of European extract born in New England.

The whole company that landed consisted of but 101 souls. Their situation was distressing, and their prospect truly dismal and discouraging. Their nearest neighbours, except the natives, were a French settlement at Port Royal, and one of the English at

* The following is an authentic copy of this contract—"In the name of God, Amen : We whose Names are under-written, the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign Lord, King James, by the grace of God, of Great Britain, France and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, &c.

"Having undertaken, for the Glory of God, and the advancement of the Christian Faith and honour of our King and country, a Voyage to Plant the first Colony in the Northern parts of Virginia ; Do, by these Presents, solemnly and mutually, in the Presence of God, and one of another, Covenant and Combine ourselves together unto a Civil Body Politic, for our better Ordering and Preservation, and Furtherance of the Ends aforesaid ; and by virtue hereof to enact, constitute, and frame such just and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitutions, and Offices from Time to Time, as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the General Good of the Colony ; unto which we Promise all due Submission and Obedience : In witness whereof we have hereunder subscribed our names at Cape Cod, the 11th of November, in the Year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord King James, of England, France, and Ireland, the Eighteenth, and of Scotland the Fifty-fourth, Anno Domini, 1620."

This instrument was signed by 24 heads of families, with the number in their respective families annexed, and 17 single men, making in the whole 101 souls.

Virginia. The nearest of these was five hundred miles from them, and utterly incapable of affording them relief in a time of famine or danger. Wherever they turned their eyes, distress was before them. Persecuted for their religion in their native land—grieved for the profanation of the holy Sabbath, and other licentiousness in Holland—fatigued by their long and boisterous voyage—disappointed through the treachery of their commander, of their expected country—forced on a dangerous and unknown shore, in the advance of a cold winter—surrounded with hostile barbarians, without any hope of human succour—denied the aid or favour of the court of England—without a patent—without a public promise of a peaceable enjoyment of their religious liberties—worn out with toil and sufferings—without convenient shelter from the rigours of the weather.—Such were the prospects, and such the situation of the pious solitary Christians; and to add to their distresses, a general and very mortal sickness prevailed among them, which swept off forty-six of their number before the opening of the next spring. To support them under these trials, they had need of all the aids and comforts which Christianity affords; and these were sufficient. The free and unmolested enjoyment of their religion reconciled them to their humble and lonely situation—They bore their hardships with unexampled patience, and persevered in their pilgrimage of almost unparalleled trials, with such resignation and calmness, as gave proof of great piety and unconquerable virtue.

On the 3d of November, 1620, King James signed a patent, incorporating the duke of Lenox, the Marquisses of Buckingham and Hamilton, the Earls of Arundel and Warwick, Sir Francis Gorges, with thirty-four others, and their successors, styling them, 'The council established in Plymouth, in the county of Devon, for the planting, ruling, ordering, and governing of New England in America.' To this council he granted all that part of America which lies between the 40th and 48th degrees of north latitude. This patent is the great *civil basis* of all the grants and patents by which New England was afterwards divided.

The Plymouth council retained the power vested in them by the crown, until the year 1635, when they resigned their charter. Previous to this, however, the council had made several grants of land to adventurers, who proposed to settle in New England.—They granted New Hampshire to Captain John Mason in 1621—the Province of Main, to Sir R. Gorges in 1622, and Massachusetts Bay to Sir Henry Roswell and five others, in 1627.

As early as March, 1621, Masassoit,* one of the most powerful Sagamores of the neighbouring Indians, with sixty attendants, made a visit to the Plymouth settlers, and entered into a formal and very friendly treaty with them, wherein they agreed to avoid injuries on both sides—to punish offenders—to restore stolen goods—to assist each other in all justifiable wars—to promote peace among their neighbours, &c.—Masassoit and his successors, for fifty years, inviolably observed this treaty. The English are much indebted to him for his friendship; and his memory will ever be respected in New England.

The Narragansets, disliking the conduct of Masassoit, declared war against him, which occasioned much confusion and fighting among the Indians. The Plymouth colony interposed in favour of Masassoit, their good ally, and terminated the dispute, to the terror of their enemies. Even *Canonicus* himself, the terrific Sachem of the Narragansets, sued for peace.

* The seat of Masassoit was at Pakanokit, on Namasket river, which empties into Narraganset Bay.

The prudent, friendly, and upright conduct of the Plymouth colony towards their neighbours, the Indians, secured their friendship and alliance. On the 13th of September 1621, no less than nine Sachems declared allegiance to King James; and Massasoit, with many of his Sub-Sachems, who lived around the bays of Patuxent and Massachusetts, subscribed a writing, acknowledging the King of England their master. These transactions are so many proofs of the peaceful and benevolent disposition of the Plymouth settlers; for had they been otherwise disposed, they never could have introduced and maintained a friendly intercourse with the natives.

On the 10th of September this year, the king granted to Sir William Alexander a patent of all the tract of country bounded by a line drawn from Cape Sables to the Bay of St. Mary; thence to the river St. Croix; thence north to Canada river; down the river to Gachepe; thence south-east to Cape Breton island and Cape Breton; thence round to Cape Sables; with all seas and islands within six leagues of the western and eastern parts, and within forty leagues southward of Cape Breton and Cape Sables; to be called *Nova Scotia*.

The first *duel* in New England was fought with sword and dagger between two servants: neither of them was killed, but both were wounded. For this disgraceful offence, they were formally tried before the whole company, and sentenced to have 'their heads and feet tied together, and so to be twenty-four hours without meat or drink.'

This year, 1622, died *Squanto*, the friend of the English, who merits to have his name perpetuated in history. Squanto was one of the twenty Indians whom Hunt perfidiously carried to Spain;* whence he came to London, and afterwards to his native country with the Plymouth colony. Forgetting the perfidy of those who made him a captive, he became a warm friend to the English, and continued so to the day of his death. A few days before he died, he desired the Governor to pray that he might go to the Englishman's God in heaven.

In March, 1624, Mr. Winslow, agent for the colony, arrived, and, together with a good supply of cloathing, brought a *bull and three heifers*, which were the first cattle of the kind in this part of America. From these, and others that were afterwards brought over from England, sprang the present multitude of cattle in the northern States. None of the domestic animals were found in America by the first European settlers.

At the close of this year, 1624, the plantation at New Plymouth consisted of 180 persons, who lived in thirty-two dwelling houses. Their stock was a few cattle and goats, and a plenty of swine and poultry. Their town was impaled about half a mile in compass. On a high mount in the town they had erected a fort of wood, lime, and stone, and a handsome watch tower.

The year 1625 is distinguished by the death of the Rev. Mr. Robinson: he died at Leyden, in March, in the 50th year of his age. He was truly a great and good man, and lived in great love and harmony with his people: he was held in high estimation by all his acquaintance, for his learning, piety, moderation, and excellent accomplishments. His death was lamented as a public loss, and felt by none more than by his beloved and far distant people at Plymouth. His son Isaac came over to Plymouth, where he lived to the age of 90 years. His descendants still live in Barnstable county, in Massachusetts.

After the death of Mr. Robinson, the remaining part of his congregation were extremely desirous of coming over to their friends at Plymouth, and measures were taken for the purpose; yet it was not until the year 1629 that they effected their design.

* See page 92.

From this time New England began to flourish. Sir Henry Roswell and others had received a patent of Massachusetts from the council of New England. Settlements were successfully enterprized at Salem, Charleston, Boston, Dorchester, and other places, so that in forty years from this time, 1629, 120 towns were settled, and forty churches were gathered.

The Laudian persecution was conducted with unrelenting severity; and while it caused the destruction of thousands in England, proved to be a principle of life and vigour to the infant settlements in America. Several men of eminence in England, who were the friends and protectors of the Puritans, entertained a design of settling in New England, if they should fail in the measures they were pursuing for the establishment of the liberty, and the reformation of the religion of their own country. They solicited and obtained grants in New England, and were at great pains in settling them. Among these patentees were the Lords Brook, Say and Seal, the Pelhams, the Hampdens, and the Pym; names which afterwards appeared with great eclat. Sir Matthew Boynton, Sir William Constable, Sir Arthur Haslerig, and Oliver Cromwell, were actually upon the point of embarking for New England, when Archbishop Laud, unwilling that so many objects of his hatred should be removed out of the reach of his power, applied for, and obtained, an order from the court to put a stop to these transportations. However, he was not able to prevail so far as to hinder New England from receiving vast additions, as well of the clergy, who were silenced and deprived of their living for non-conformity, as of the laity who adhered to their opinions.

The colony of Plymouth remained without a charter, until they were incorporated with Massachusetts in 1691 or 1692. Notwithstanding this, it was a government *de facto*, and considered as such by King Charles in his letters and orders, which were sent them at various times previous to their incorporation with Massachusetts.

It was in the spring of 1630, that the GREAT CONSPIRACY was entered into by the Indians in all parts, from the Narragansets round to the eastward, to extirpate the English. The colony at Plymouth was the principal object of this conspiracy: they well knew that if they could effect the destruction of Plymouth, the infant settlement at Massachusetts would fall an easy sacrifice. They laid their plan with much art. Under colour of having some diversion at Plymouth, they intended to have fallen upon the inhabitants, and thus to have effected their design. But their plot was disclosed to the people at Charleston, by John Sagamore, an Indian, who had always been a great friend to the English. This treacherous design of the Indians alarmed the English, and induced them to erect forts and maintain guards, to prevent any such fatal surprize in future. These preparations, and the firing of the *great guns*, so terrified the Indians, that they dispersed, relinquished their design, and declared themselves the friends of the English.

Such was the vast increase of inhabitants in New England by natural population, and particularly by emigrations from Great Britain, that in a few years, besides the settlements in Plymouth and Massachusetts, very flourishing colonies were planted in Rhode Island, Connecticut, New Haven and New Hampshire. The dangers to which these colonies were exposed from the surrounding Indians, as well as from the Dutch, who, although very friendly to the infant colony at Plymouth, were now likely to prove troublesome neighbours, first induced them to think of an alliance and confederacy for their mutual defence. Accordingly in 1643, the four colonies of Plymouth, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New Haven, agreed upon articles of confederation, whereby a congress was formed, consisting of two commissioners from each colony, who were chosen annually, and when met, were considered as the repre-

representatives of "The United Colonies of New England." The powers delegated to the commissioners were much the same as those vested in Congress by the articles of confederation, agreed upon by the United States in 1778. The colony of Rhode Island would gladly have joined in this confederacy, but Massachusetts, for particular reasons, refused to admit their commissioners. This union subsisted, with some few alterations, until the year 1686, when all the charters, except that of Connecticut, were, in effect, vacated by a commission from James II.

The reader will obtain the best knowledge of the history of New England, by consulting Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts—Hazard's Historical Collections, 4to. 2 vols. the 2d vol. not yet published, but ready for the press—Belknap's History of New Hampshire—The first letter in Dr. Gordon's History of the American Revolution—Governor Winthrop's Journal—Chalmer's Political Annals—and Gookins' Historical Collections of the Indians in New England, published in Boston by the Historical Society, in the American Apollo, 1792.

VERMONT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 150 } between { 42° 44' and 45° N. Lat.
Breadth 70 } { 1° 35' and 3° 30' E. Long. from Phil.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Lower Canada; east, by Connecticut River, which divides it from New Hampshire; south, by Massachusetts; west, by New York.

DIVISIONS.] Vermont is naturally divided by the Green Mountain, which runs from south to north, and divides the State nearly in the middle. Its civil divisions are as follows:

	Counties.	Towns.		Counties.	Towns.
W. of the Moun.	BENNINGTON,	BENNINGTON,	E. of the Moun.	ORANGE,	NEWBURY,
	RUTLAND,	RUTLAND,		WINDSOR,	WINDSOR,
	ADDISON,	ADDISON,		WINDHAM,	{ NEWFANE,
	CHITTENDON,	COLCHESTER,			{ PUTNEY.

These counties are divided into upwards of 200 townships, which are generally six miles square. In every township is a reserve of two rights of land, of 350 acres each, one to be appropriated for the support of public schools; the other to be given in fee to the first minister who settles in the township. A part of the townships were granted by the governor of New Hampshire, and the other part by that of Vermont. In those townships granted by the former, a right of land is reserved for the support of the gospel in foreign parts; in those granted by the latter, a college right, and a right for the support of county grammar schools, are reserved. In these reservations, liberal provision is made for the support of the gospel, and for the promotion of common and collegiate education.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in this State are, Michiscoui, Lamoille, Onion, and Otter Creek rivers, which run from east to west into Lake Champlain; West, Sexton's, Black, Waterquechee, White, Ompompanoosuck, Weld's, Wait's, Passumpsick, and several

several smaller rivers, which run from west to east, into Connecticut river. Over the river Lamoille is a natural stone bridge seven or eight rods in length. Otter Creek is navigable for boats 50 miles: its banks are excellent land, being annually overflowed and enriched. White river takes its name from the peculiar whiteness of its water, caused by the clear white stones and gravel which constitute the bed of this river quite to its source. This peculiarity deceives people in regard to its depth. It rises in the center of the State, flows through a rich tract of country free from swamps, and empties into the Connecticut four miles below Dartmouth College, and is from 100 to 150 yards wide, some distance from its mouth. Ompompanoosuck is a short, furious river, not more than 40 or 50 yards wide, emptying into the Connecticut at Norwich. Weld's is also a short and rapid river, 40 yards across. Passumpsick is 100 yards wide, and noted for the quantity and quality of the salmon it produces. On this river, which is settled 20 miles up, are some of the best townships in the State.

LAKES AND SPRINGS.] Memphremagog is the largest lake in this State. It is the reservoir of three considerable streams, Black, Barton, and Clyde rivers. One of these rises in Willoughby Lake, and forms a communication between that and lake St. Peter's, in the river St. Lawrence. Issuing from Willoughby's Lake, it empties into Memphremagog, and thence, by the name of St. Francis, empties into the St. Peter. This river is not all the way navigable; otherwise it would afford a communication of very great importance to the northern part of this State, as the settlers might transport their produce with great ease to Montreal or Quebec. Willoughby's Lake furnishes fish resembling bass, of an excellent flavour, weighing from 10 to 30 pounds. They form a most delicious feast for the new settlers: people travel 20 miles to this lake to procure a winter's stock of this fish. Lake Bombazon, in the county of Rutland, gives rise to a branch of Poultney River, on which iron works have been erected in the township of Fair Haven.

In some low lands, over against the great Ox Bow, a remarkable spring was discovered, about 20 years since, which dries up once in two or three years, and bursts out in another place. It has a strong smell of sulphur, and throws up continually a peculiar kind of white sand. A thick yellow scum rises upon the water when settled. Ponds, and other collections of water in this State, are remarkably clear and transparent, and afford abundance of trout and perch.

MOUNTAINS.] The principal mountain in this State is the one we have already mentioned, which divides the State nearly in the center, between Connecticut River and Lake Champlain. The ascent from the east to the top of this mountain is much easier than from the west, till you get to Onion River, where the mountain terminates. The height of land is generally from 20 to 30 miles from the river, and about the same distance from the New York line. The natural growth upon this mountain is hemlock, pine, spruce, and other evergreens; hence it has always a green appearance, and on this account has obtained the descriptive name of *Ver Mons*, *Green Mountain*. On some high parts of this mountain snow lies till May, and sometimes till June. This chain of mountains passes through Massachusetts and Connecticut, and terminates in New Haven.

The other noted mountain is Ashcutney, bordering on Connecticut River, in the townships of Windsor and Weathersfield, and Upper Great Monadnock, quite in the N. E. corner of the State.

It is remarkable, that the hills and mountains are generally covered on the east sides with what is called hard wood, such as birch, beech, maple, ash, elm, and butternut; the west side is generally covered with evergreens.

CLIMATE.] During the winter season, which commonly lasts from the beginning of November to the middle of April, the inhabitants enjoy a serene sky, and a keen cold air. Snow begins to fall, commonly, by the first of November; but the permanent snows do not fall till about the 10th of December, which prevent the ground freezing to any considerable depth. In April the snow is gradually dissolved by the warm influences of the sun, which moistens and enriches the earth, and vegetation advances with surprising rapidity.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] This State, generally speaking, is hilly but not rocky. West of the mountain, from the county of Rutland northward to the Canada line, is a flat country well adapted for tillage. The State at large is well watered, and affords the best of pasturage for cattle. Some of the finest beef cattle in the world are driven from this State. Horses also are raised for exportation. The natural growth upon the rivers, is white pines of several kinds, intermingled with low intervals of beech, elm, and white oak. Back from the rivers, the land is thickly timbered with birch, sugar maple, ash, butternut, and white oak of an excellent quality. The soil is natural for wheat, rye, barley, oats, flax, hemp, &c. Indian corn, back from the river, is frequently injured by the frost; but on the river it is raised in as great perfection as in any part of New England, owing in a great measure to the fogs arising from the river, which either prevent or extract the frost. These fogs begin as soon as the corn is in danger from frosts, and last till cold weather commences. Fruit trees, in the northern counties, do not prosper.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this State trade principally with Boston, New York, and Hartford. The articles of export are pot and pearl ashes, chiefly beef, horses, grain, some butter and cheese, lumber, &c. The inhabitants generally manufacture their own clothing, in the family way. Grain has been raised in such plenty within a few years past, that the inhabitants have been induced to attempt the manufacture of corn spirits. For this purpose six or seven stills have already been erected, which yield a sufficient supply for the people, and a profit to the owners. Vast quantities of pot and pearl ashes are made in every part of the State. But one of the most important manufactures in this State is that of maple sugar. It has been estimated by a competent judge, that the average quantity made for every family back of Connecticut River, is 200lbs. a year. One man, with but ordinary advantages, in one month, made 550lbs. of a quality equal to imported brown sugar. In two towns, in Orange county, containing no more than 40 families, 13,000lbs. of sugar were made in the year 1791. The probability is, that in a few years maple sugar will become an article of export. In some parts of the State, the inhabitants are beginning to line the roads with maple trees; and it would certainly be a wise measure if this practice should become general throughout the States. Orchards of these trees, planted on sloping hills, so as to render it easy to collect the juice, might be attended with peculiar advantages to the owners.

POPULATION, RELIGION, AND CHARACTER.] In 1790, according to the census then taken, this state contained 85,539 inhabitants, consisting chiefly of emigrants from Connecticut and Massachusetts, and their descendants. Two townships in Orange county are settled principally by Scotch people. The body of the people are Congregationalists. The other denominations are Presbyterians, Baptists, and Episcopals. This State is rapidly peopling. Five years ago, the township of Danville, in the county of Orange, was a wilderness, without so much as a single family. Now they have two considerable companies of militia; besides a company of light infantry, dressed in uniform.

The inhabitants of this State are an assemblage of people from various places, of different sentiments, manners, and habits. They have not lived together long enough to assimilate and form a general character. Assemble together in imagination, a number of individuals of different nations—consider them as living together amicably, and assisting each other through the toils and difficulties of life; and yet rigorously opposed in particular religious and political tenets; jealous of their rulers, and tenacious of their liberties—dispositions which originate naturally from the dread of experienced oppression, and the habit of living under a free government—and you have a pretty just idea of the character of the people of Vermont. Indolence is never a characteristic feature of the settlers of a new country. Emigrants in general are active and industrious. The opposite characters have neither spirit nor inclination to quit their native spot. The inference is, that Vermont is peopled with an active, industrious, hardy, frugal race; as is really the case. And as it is a maxim that the inhabitants of all new countries grow virtuous before they degenerate, it will most probably be so in Vermont.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] In 1788, there were upwards of 17,000 men upon the militia rolls of this State. These consisted of two divisions, one on the west, the other on the east side of the mountain. In these two divisions were 7 brigades, consisting of 22 regiments. The bravery of the Vermonters, or Green Mountain-boys, is proverbial.

LITERATURE AND IMPROVEMENTS.] Much cannot be said in favour of the present state of literature in this State; but their prospects in this regard are good. In every charter of a town, as we have mentioned, provision is made for schools, by reserving a certain quantity of land solely for their support. The assembly of this State, in their October session in 1791, passed an act for the establishment of a college in the town of Burlington, on Lake Champlain, on the south side of Onion river, and appointed ten Trustees. General Ira Allen, one of the Trustees, on certain conditions, offers lands, &c. to the amount of 4000l. towards this establishment.

The expediency of opening a communication between the waters of Lake Champlain and Hudson's River; and of rendering the navigation of Connecticut River more easy and advantageous, has been discussed by the legislature of this State; and measures have been adopted to effect the latter, by incorporating a company for the purpose of locking Bellows' falls, who are to complete the work within four years from the passing of the act, and to receive a toll for all boats that pass; the toll to be a subject of regulation. The works are already begun, and when completed will be of great advantage to the State, by facilitating the exportation of their produce. The other proposed canal between Lake Champlain and Hudson's River would also be important, but it is doubtful whether it will, at present, be accomplished.

CHIEF TOWNS.] In a new and interior country, large, populous towns are not to be expected. Bennington, situated near the south-west corner of the State, is one of the largest. It contains about 2400 inhabitants, a number of handsome houses, a congregational church, a court house and gaol. A famous battle was fought in or near this town, during the late war, in 1777, between Brigadier-general Starke, at the head of 800 undisciplined militia, and a detachment of General Burgoyne's army, commanded by Colonel Baum. In this action and the one that succeeded it in the same place, and on the same day, between a reinforcement of the British, under Colonel Breymen, and General Starke, who was reinforced by Colonel Warner, with a continental regiment, were taken, 4 brass field pieces, and other military stores, and 700 prisoners. The overthrow of these detachments was the first link in a grand chain of causes, which finally proved the ruin of the royal army. This is one of the oldest

towns in the State, being first settled about the year 1764, and is a thriving town, and has been, till lately, the seat of government.

Windfor and Rutland, by a late act of the legislature, are alternately to be the seat of government for 8 years. The former is situated on Connecticut River, and contains about 1600 inhabitants; the latter lies upon Otter Creek, and contains upwards of 1400 inhabitants. Both are flourishing towns. Guilford, Brattleborough, Putney, Westminster, Weathersfield, Hartland, Norwich, and Newbury, are considerable towns, lying from south to north, on Connecticut River. Newbury is the shire town of Orange county, which comprehends about three eighths of the whole State, and contains about 900 inhabitants.* It has a court house, and a very elegant meeting house for congregationalists, with a steeple, the first erected in the State. The celebrated Coos meadows or intervalles commence about 9 miles below this town. Newbury court house stands on the high lands back from the river, and commands a fine view of what is called the great *Ox Bow*, which is formed by a curious bend in the river. It is one of the most beautiful and fertile meadows in New England. The circumference of this bow is about $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles; its greatest depth is seven-eighths of a mile, containing about 450 acres. At the season when nature is dressed in her green attire, a view of this meadow from the high lands is truly luxuriant.

Shaftsbury, Pownal, Manchester, Clarendon, Poultney, Pawlet, Danby and Charlotte, are considerable and flourishing towns, west of the mountain. In the town of Orwell is Mount Independence, at the southern extremity of Lake Champlain, opposite to which is Ticonderoga, in the State of New York.

CURIOSITIES.] There is a very remarkable ledge of rocks in the town of Bradford, in the county of Orange. It lies on the west bank of Connecticut River, and is as much as 200 feet high. It appears to hang over and threaten the traveller as he passes. The space between this ledge and the river is scarcely wide enough for a road.†

In the township of Tinmouth, on the side of a small hill, is a very curious cave. The chasm at its entrance is about four feet in circumference. Entering this you descend 104 feet, and then opens a spacious room, 20 feet in breadth, and 100 feet in length. The angle of descent is about 45 degrees. The roof of this cavern is of rock, through which the water is continually percolating. The stalactites which hang from the roof appear like icicles on the eaves of houses, and are continually increasing in number and magnitude. The bottom and sides are daily incrusting with spar and other mineral substances. On the sides of this subterraneous hall are tables, chairs, benches, &c. which appear to have been artificially carved. This richly ornamented room, when illuminated with the candles of the guides, has an enchanting effect upon the eye of the spectator. If we might be indulged in assigning the general cause of these astonishing appearances, we shall conclude from the various circumstances accompanying them, that they arise from water filtrating slowly through the incumbent

* General Bayley and Col. Thomas Johnson, enterprized the first settlements into this part of the country, about the year 1762. At this period there was no road nor human inhabitant for 70 miles down the river, nor for as many miles eastward. It is now thickly inhabited by thriving farmers.

† Though out of place, the information not being received early enough to be inserted under its proper head, I cannot refrain from communicating the following curious and useful information.

The river St. Lawrence, at Montreal, is about 3 miles wide. There is an island near the middle of the river, opposite the city, at the lower end of which is a mill, with 8 pair of stones, all kept in motion at the same time, with one wheel. The works are said to have cost 12,000l. sterling. A large mound of stone, &c. built out into the river, stops a sufficiency of water to keep the mill in perpetual motion. And what is very curious, at the end of this mound or dam, vessels pass against the stream, while the mill is in motion. Perhaps there is not another mill of the kind in the world.

strata; and taking up in its passage a variety of mineral substances, and becoming thus saturated with metallic particles, gradually exuding on the surface of the caverns and fissures, in a quiescent state, the aqueous particles evaporate, and leave the mineral substances to unite according to their affinities.

At the end of this cave is a circular hole, 15 feet deep, apparently hewn out in a conical form, enlarging gradually as you descend, in the form of a sugar loaf. At the bottom is a spring of fresh water in continual motion, like the boiling of a pot. Its depth has never been sounded.

CONSTITUTION.] The inhabitants of Vermont, by their representatives in convention, at Windsor, on the 25th of December, 1777, declared that the territory called Vermont was, and of right ought to be, a free and independent State; and for the purpose of maintaining regular government in the same, they made a solemn declaration of their rights, and ratified a constitution, of which the following is an abstract:

Their declaration, which makes a part of their constitution, asserts that all men are born equally free—with equal rights, and ought to enjoy liberty of conscience—freedom of the press—trial by jury—power to form new States in vacant countries, and to regulate their own internal police—that all elections ought to be free—that all power is originally in the people—that government ought to be instituted for the common benefit of the community—and that the community have a right to reform or abolish government—that every member of society hath a right to protection of life, liberty, and property—and in return is bound to contribute his proportion of the expence of that protection, and yield his personal service when necessary—that he shall not be obliged to give evidence against himself—that the people have a right to bear arms—but no standing armies shall be maintained in time of peace—that the people have a right to hold themselves, their houses, papers, and possessions, free from search or seizure—and therefore warrants without oaths first made, affording sufficient foundation for them, are contrary to that right, and ought not to be granted—that no person shall be liable to be transported out of this State for trial for any offence committed within this State, &c.

By the frame of government, the supreme legislative power is vested in a house of representatives of the freemen of the State of Vermont, to be chosen annually by the freemen on the first Tuesday in September, and to meet the second Thursday of the succeeding October—This body is vested with all the powers necessary for the legislature of a free state—Two thirds of the whole number of representatives elected make a quorum.

Each inhabited town throughout the State has a right to send one representative to the assembly.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, and twelve counsellors, to be chosen annually in the same manner, and vested with the same powers as in Connecticut.

Every person of the age of 21 years, who had resided in the State one whole year next before the election of representatives, and is of a quiet, peaceable behaviour, and will bind himself by his oath, to do what he shall in conscience judge to be most conducive to the best good of the State, shall be intitled to all the privileges of a freeman of this State.

Each member of the House of Representatives, before he takes his seat, must declare his belief in one God—in future rewards and punishments, and in the divinity of the scriptures of the Old and New Testament, and must profess the protestant religion.

Courts of justice are to be established in every county throughout the State.

The supreme court, and the several courts of common pleas of this State, besides the powers usually exercised by such courts, have the powers of a court of chancery, so far as relates to perpetuating testimony, obtaining evidence from places not within the State, and the care of the persons and estates of those who are *non compos mentis*, &c. All prosecutions are to be commenced in the name and by the authority of the freemen of the State of Vermont. The legislature are to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities.

All field and staff officers, and commissioned officers of the army, and all general officers of the militia, shall be chosen by the general assembly, and be commissioned by the governor.

Every seventh year, beginning with the year 1785, thirteen persons (none of whom are to be of the council or assembly) shall be chosen by the freemen, and be called "the council of censors," whose duty it shall be to inquire whether the constitution has been preserved inviolate in every part—whether the legislative and executive powers have been properly exercised—taxes justly laid and collected—the public monies rightly disposed of—and the laws duly executed.—For these purposes they shall have power to send for persons, papers, &c.—to pass public censures—to order impeachments, and to recommend the repeal of all laws enacted contrary to the principles of the constitution. They are to be vested with these powers for one year only, after the day of their election.

The council of censors, when necessary, may call a convention, to meet two years after their sitting—to alter the constitution—the proposed alterations to be published at least six months before the election of delegates to such convention.

HISTORY.] The tract of country called *Vermont*, before the late war, was claimed both by New York and New Hampshire; and these interfering claims have been the occasion of much warm altercation, the particulars of which it would be neither entertaining nor useful to detail. They were not finally adjusted till since the peace. When hostilities commenced between Great Britain and her colonies, the inhabitants of this district, considering themselves as in a state of nature, and not within the jurisdiction either of New York or New Hampshire, associated and formed for themselves the constitution, of which we have given an abstract. Under this constitution they have continued to exercise all the powers of an independent state, and have been prospered. On the fourth of March, 1791, agreeably to act of Congress of December 6th, 1790, this State became one of the United States, and constitutes the fourteenth, and not the least respectable pillar in the American Union.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 168 } between { 42° 41' and 45° 11' N. Latitude.
Breadth 60 } { 4° 30' and 6° 17' E. Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by the Province of Lower Canada; east, by the District of Main and the Atlantic Ocean; south, by Massachusetts; west, by the western bank of Connecticut River; containing 9,491 square

Square miles, or 6,074,240 acres; of which at least 100,000 acres are water. The shape of New Hampshire resembles an open fan; Connecticut river makes the curve, the southern line the shortest, the eastern line the longest side.

[CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This State is divided into 5 counties, which are subdivided into townships, most of which are about 6 miles square.

<i>Counties.</i>	<i>Townships.</i>	<i>Inhabitants.</i>	<i>Chief Towns.</i>	<i>No. Inhab.</i>
Rockingham	46	43,169	{ Portsmouth, Lat. 43° 5' Exeter Concord	4,720 1,722 1,747
Strafford	24 and 3 locations	23,601	{ Dover Durham	1,998 1,247
Hillsborough	37 and 3 locations	28,772	{ Amherst	2,369
Cheshire	34	32,871	{ Keen Charleston	1,314 1,093
Grafton	50 and 17 locations	13,472	{ Haverhill Plymouth	552 625
Total	214	141,885		

[CLIMATE.] See New England.

[FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] This State has but about 18 miles of sea coast, at its south-east corner. In this distance there are several coves for fishing vessels; but the only harbour for ships is the entrance of Piscataqua river, the shores of which are rocky. The shore is mostly a sandy beach, adjoining which are salt marshes, intersected by creeks. From the sea no remarkable high lands in New Hampshire appear, nearer than 20 or 30 miles. The first ridge, by the name of the Blue Hills, passes through Rochester, Barrington, and Nottingham, and the several summits are distinguished by different names. Beyond these are several higher, detached mountains. Farther back, the mountains rise still higher, and among this third range, Chocorua, Ossage, and Kyarsarge, are the principal. Beyond these is the lofty ridge which divides the branches of Connecticut and Merrimack rivers, denominated *The Height of Land*. In this ridge is the celebrated Monadnock mountain. Thirty miles north of which is Sunapee, and 48 miles further, in the same direction, is Mooselillock mountain. The ridge is then continued northerly, dividing the waters of the river Connecticut from those of Saco, and Amiscoggin. Here the mountains rise much higher, and the most elevated summits in this range are the White Mountains. The lands west of this last mentioned range of mountains, bordering on Connecticut river, are interspersed with extensive meadows or intervalles, rich and well watered.

[MOUNTAINS.] We have already named the most considerable mountains in this State. Several of them require a particular description. We begin with the Monadnock, which lies 10 miles north of the southern boundary of the State, and 22 miles east of Connecticut river. The elevation of this mountain above the level of the sea, as measured by James Winthrop, Esq. 1780, is 3254 feet. The base of this mountain is about five miles in diameter from north to south, and three from east to west. Its summit is a bald rock: and on the sides are some appearances of the explosion of subterraneous fires. In West River mountain, adjoining Connecticut river, in the township of Chesterfield, appearances of a similar nature are more visible. About the year 1730, the garrison of Fort Dummer, four miles distant, was alarmed with frequent explosions of fire and smoke emitted from the mountain. The like appearances have been observed since.

Offapy mountain lies adjoining the town of Moultonborough, on the north east. In this town it is observed, that in a N. E. storm the wind falls over the mountain, like water over a dam : and with such force, as frequently to unroof houses.

Mooschillóck mountain is the highest of this chain, the White Mountains excepted. It takes its name from the circumstance of its being a remarkable range for Moose. This mountain is about 70 miles westward of the White mountains. From its N. W. side flows Baker's river, a branch of Pemigewasset. On this mountain snow has been seen, from the town of Newbury, on the 30th of June and 31st of August ; and on the mountains intervening, called Franconia and Lincoln mountains, snow, it is said, lies through the year.

People who live near these mountains, by noticing the various movements of attracted vapours, can form a pretty accurate judgement of the weather ; and they hence style these mountains their Almanack. If a cloud is attracted by a mountain, and hovers on its top, they predict rain ; and if after rain the mountain continues capped, they expect a repetition of showers. A storm is preceded for several hours by a roaring of the mountain, which may be heard 10 or 12 miles.

But the White Mountains are by far the most stupendous of any in this State or in New England, and perhaps are the most remarkable of any within the United States ; they therefore merit particular notice. The Rev. Dr. Belknap elegantly describes them as follows :

“ They are undoubtedly the highest land in New England, and in clear weather, are discovered before any other land, by vessels coming in to the eastern coast : but by reason of their white appearance, are frequently mistaken for clouds. They are visible on the land at the distance of eighty miles, on the south and south-east sides ; they appear higher when viewed from the north-east ; and it is said, they are seen from the neighbourhood of Chamble and Quebec. The Indians gave them the name of Agiocochook : They had a very ancient tradition that their country was once drowned, with all its inhabitants, except one Powaw and his wife, who, foreseeing the flood, fled to these mountains, where they were preserved, and that from them the country was re-peopled.* They had a superstitious veneration for the summit, as the habitation of invisible beings ; they never venture to ascend it, and always endeavour to dissuade every one from the attempt. From them, and the captives, whom they sometimes led to Canada, through the passes of these mountains, many fictions have been propagated, which have given rise to marvellous and incredible stories ; particularly, it has been reported, that at immense and inaccessible heights there have been seen carbuncles, which are supposed to appear luminous in the night. Some writers, who have attempted to give an account of these mountains, have ascribed the whiteness of them to shining rocks, or a kind of white moss ; and the highest summit has been deemed inaccessible on account of the extreme cold, which threatens to freeze the traveller in the midst of summer.

Nature has, indeed, in that region, formed her works on a large scale, and presented to view many objects which do not ordinarily occur. A person who is unacquainted with a mountainous country, cannot, upon his first coming into it, make an adequate judgement of height and distances ; he will imagine every thing to be nearer and less than it really is, until, by experience, he learns to correct his apprehensions, and accommodate his eye to the magnitude and situation of the objects around him. When amazement is excited by the grandeur and sublimity of the scenes presented to view, it

is necessary to curb the imagination, and exercise judgement with mathematical precision; or the temptation to romance will be invincible.

The White Mountains are the most elevated part of a ridge, which extends N. E. and S. W. to an immense distance. The area of their base is an irregular figure, the whole circuit of which is not less than sixty miles. The number of summits within this area cannot at present be ascertained, the country round them being a thick wilderness. The greatest number which can be seen at once, is at Dartmouth, on the N. W. side, where seven summits appear at one view, of which four are bald. Of these the three highest are the most distant, being on the eastern side of the cluster; one of these is the mountain which makes so majestic an appearance all along the shore of the eastern counties of Massachusetts: It has lately been distinguished by the name of MOUNT WASHINGTON.

To arrive at the foot of this mountain, there is a continual ascent of twelve miles, from the plain of Pigwacket, which brings the traveller to the height of land between Saco and Ameriscoggin rivers. At this height there is a level of about a mile square, part of which is a meadow, formerly a beaver pond, with a dam at each end. Here, though elevated more than three thousand feet above the level of the sea, the traveller finds himself in a deep valley. On the east is a steep mountain, out of which issue several springs, one of which is the fountain of Ellis River, a branch of Saco, which runs south; another of Peabody river, a branch of Ameriscoggin, which runs north. From this meadow towards the west, there is an uninterrupted ascent on a ridge between two deep gullies, to the summit of Mount Washington.

The lower part of the mountain is shaded by a thick growth of spruce and fir. The surface is composed of rocks; covered with very long green moss, which extends from one rock to another, and is, in many places, so thick and strong as to bear a man's weight. This immense bed of moss serves as a sponge to retain the moisture brought by the clouds and vapours, which are frequently rising and gathering round the mountains; the thick growth of wood prevents the rays of the sun from penetrating to exhale it; so that there is a constant supply of water deposited in the crevices of the rocks, and issuing in the form of springs from every part of the mountain.

The rocks which compose the surface of the mountain, are, in some parts, slate, in others flint; some specimens of rock chrysal have been found, but of no great value. No lime stone has yet been discovered, though the most likely rocks have been tried with aqua fortis. There is one precipice on the eastern side, not only completely perpendicular, but composed of square stones, as regular as a piece of masonry; it is about five feet high, and from fifteen to twenty in length. The uppermost rocks of the mountain are the common quartz, of a dark grey colour; when broken, they shew very small shining specks, but there is no such appearance on the exterior part. The eastern side of the mountain rises in an angle of 45 degrees, and requires six or seven hours of hard labour to ascend it. Many of the precipices are so steep as to oblige the traveller to use his hands, as well as his feet, and to hold by the trees, which diminish in size, till they degenerate into shrubs and bushes. Above these are low vines, some bearing red, and others blue berries, and the uppermost vegetation is a species of grass, called winter-grass, mixed with the moss of the rocks.

Having surmounted the upper and steepest precipice, there is a large area, called the plain. It is a dry heath, composed of rocks covered with moss, and bearing the appearance of a pasture in the beginning of the winter season. In some openings,
between

between the rocks, there are springs of water, in others, dry gravel. Here the grouse or heath bird resorts, and is generally out of danger. The sugar loaf, which stands on this plain, is a pyramidal heap of grey rocks, which, in some places, are formed like winding steps. This pinnacle has been ascended in a hour and a half. The traveller having gained the summit, is recompensed for his toil, if the sky be serene, with a most noble and extensive prospect. On the S. E. side, there is a view of the Atlantic Ocean, the nearest part of which is sixty-five miles in a direct line. On the W. and N. the prospect is bounded by the high lands, which separate the waters of Connecticut and Ameriscoggin rivers from those of Lake Champlain and St. Lawrence. On the south, it extends to the southernmost mountains of New Hampshire, comprehending a view of the Lake Winipiseogee. On every side of these mountains are long winding gullies, beginning at the precipice below the plain, and deepening in the descent. In winter, the snow lodges in these gullies; and being driven, by the N. W. and N. E. wind, from the top, is deepest in those which are situated on the southerly side. It is observed to lie longer in the spring on the south, than on the N. W. side, which is the case with many other hills in New Hampshire.

During the period of nine or ten months, the mountains exhibit more or less of that bright appearance, from which they are denominated white. In the spring, when the snow is partly dissolved, they appear of a pale blue, streaked with white; and after it is wholly gone, at the distance of 60 miles, they are altogether of the same pale blue, nearly approaching a sky colour; while at the same time, viewed at the distance of eight miles or less, they appear of the proper colour of the rock. These changes are observed by people who live within constant view of them; and from these facts and observations, it may with certainty be concluded, that the whiteness of them is wholly caused by the snow, and not by any other white substance, for in fact there is none.

A company of gentlemen visited these mountains in July 1784, with a view to make particular observations on the several phenomena which might occur. It happened unfortunately, that thick clouds covered the mountains almost the whole time, so that some of the instruments, which, with much labour, they had carried up, were rendered useless.

The height of the mountain was computed, in round numbers, at five thousand five hundred feet above the meadow, in the valley below, and nearly ten thousand feet above the level of the sea.*

These vast and irregular heights, being copiously replenished with water, exhibit a great variety of beautiful cascades; some of which fall in a perpendicular sheet or spout, others are winding and sloping, others spread and form a basin in the rock, and then gush in a cataract over its edge. A poetic fancy may find full gratification amidst these wild and rugged scenes, if its ardour be not checked by the fatigue of the approach. Almost every thing in nature, which can be supposed capable of inspiring ideas of the sublime and beautiful, is here realized. Aged mountains, stupendous elevations, rolling clouds, impending rocks, verdant woods, chrysal streams, the gentle rill, and the roaring torrent, all conspire to amaze, to soothe, and to enrapture.

* This computation was made by the Rev. Dr. Cutler. Subsequent observations and calculations have induced the author to believe the computation of his ingenious friend too moderate, and he is persuaded, that whenever the mountain can be measured with the requisite precision, it will be found to exceed ten thousand feet of perpendicular altitude above the level of the ocean.

On the western part of these mountains is a pass, commonly called the Notch, which, in the narrowest part, measures but twenty-two feet, between two perpendicular rocks. From the height above it, a brook descends, and meanders through a meadow, formerly a beaver pond. It is surrounded by rocks, which on one side are perpendicular, and on the others rise in an angle of forty-five degrees—a strikingly picturesque scene! This defile was known to the Indians, who formerly led their captives through it to Canada; but it had been forgotten or neglected, till the year 1771, when two hunters passed through it, and from their report, the proprietors of lands, on the northern parts of Connecticut river, formed the plan of a road through it to the Upper Coos, from which it is distant twenty-five miles. Along the eastern side of the meadow, under the perpendicular rock, is a causeway of large logs, sunk into the mud by rocks blown with gunpowder from the mountain. On this foundation is constructed a road which passes through the narrow defile at the south end of the meadow, leaving a passage for the rivulet, which glides along the western side. This rivulet is the head of the river Saco; and on the north side of the meadow, at a little distance, is another brook, which is the head of Amonoosuck, a large branch of Connecticut river. The latitude of this place is $44^{\circ} 12' N$.

The rivulet, which gives rise to Saco, descends towards the south; and at a little distance from the defile, its waters are augmented by two streams from the left, one of which descends in a trench of two feet wide, and is called the flume, from the near resemblance which it bears to an artificial flume. Over these are thrown strong bridges; and the whole construction of this road is firm and durable; much labour has been expended upon it, and the neat proceeds of a confiscated estate were applied to defray the expense. In the descent the pass widens, and the stream increases; but for eight or ten miles from the notch, the mountains on each side are so near, as to leave room only for the river and its intervalles; which are not more than half a mile wide. In the course of this descent, several curious objects present themselves to view. On the side of one mountain is a projection resembling a shelf, on which stands four large square rocks, in a form resembling as many huge folio volumes. In two or three places, at immense heights; and perfectly inaccessible, appear rocks of a white and red hue, the surface of which is polished like a mirror by the constant trickling of water over them. These being exposed to the west and south, are capable, in the night, of reflecting the moon and star beams to the wondering traveller in the deep, dark valley below, and by the help of imagination, are sufficient to give rise to the fiction of carbuncles.

To encompass these mountains, as the roads are laid out through the eastern and western passes, and round the northern side of the whole cluster, it is necessary to travel more than seventy miles, and to ford eight considerable rivers, besides many smaller streams. The distance between the heads of rivers, which pursue such different courses, from this immense elevation, and which fall into the sea, so many hundred miles asunder, is so small, that a traveller may, in the course of one day, drink the waters of Saco, Amerscoggin, and Connecticut rivers. These waters are all perfectly limpid and sweet, excepting one brook, on the eastern side of Mount Washington, which has a saponaceous taste, and is covered with a very thick and strong froth. It is said, that there is a part of the mountain where the magnetic needle refuses to traverse; this is probably caused by a body of iron ore. It is also said that a mineral, supposed to be lead, has been discovered near the eastern pass; but that the spot cannot now be found. What stores the bowels of these mountains contain, time must unfold; all searches for subterraneous treasures having hitherto proved fruitless. The most certain

riches

riches which they yield, are the freshets which bring down the soil to the intervalles below, and form a fine mould, producing, by the aid of cultivation, corn and herbage in the most luxuriant plenty.*

RIVERS.] Five of the largest streams in New England receive more or less of their waters from this State. These are Connecticut, Amiscoggin, Saco, Merrimack, and Piscataqua rivers.

Connecticut river rises in the Highlands which separate the United States from the British province of Lower Canada. It has been surveyed about twenty-five miles beyond the 45th degree of latitude, to the head spring of its north-western branch. It is settled all the way nearly to its source. Its general course is about S. S. W. It extends along the western side of New Hampshire about 170 miles, and then passes into Massachusetts. The rivers which it receives from Vermont, on the western side, have been already mentioned. Besides smaller streams, it receives from New Hampshire, Upper Ammonoosuck, which passes through excellent meadows, Israel river, a romantic stream, bordered with fine land, as is John's river, a deep, muddy stream, twenty-five or thirty yards wide, six miles below Israel river. This country is called Upper Coos. Just above the town of Haverhill, in Lower Coos, falls in Great or Lower Ammonoosuck, 100 yards wide; and which, two miles from its mouth, receives Wild Ammonoosuck, forty yards wide, from Franconia and Lincoln mountains. Two or three hours heavy rain raises the water in this river several feet, and occasions a current so furious, as to put in motion stones of a foot in diameter; but its violence soon subsides. As you proceed south to the Massachusetts line you pass Sugar, Cold, and Ashuelot rivers.

Connecticut river, in its course between New Hampshire and Vermont, has two considerable falls; the first are called Fifteen Mile Falls, between Upper and Lower Coos---the river is rapid for twenty miles. At Walpole is a second remarkable fall, formerly known by the name of the Great Fall, now denominated Bellows' Falls. The breadth of the river above them is, in some places, twenty-two, in others not above sixteen rods. The depth of the channel is about twenty-five feet, and commonly runs full of water. In September 1792, however, owing to the severe draught, the water of the river, it is said; "passed within the space of twelve feet wide and $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep." A large rock divides the stream into two channels, each about ninety feet wide. When the water is low, the eastern channel is dry, being crossed by a bar of solid rock, and the whole stream falls into the western channel, where it is contracted to the breadth of sixteen feet, and flows with astonishing rapidity. The perpendicular height of this fall has not been ascertained, nor the depth of the water below it. There are several pitches one above another, in the length of half a mile, the largest of which is that where the rock divides the stream. Notwithstanding the velocity of the current, the salmon pass up the fall, and are taken many miles above; but the shad proceed no farther. This is the famous fall which is so extravagantly and ludicrously described in an anonymous publication, filled with such extravagant falsehoods, commonly known by the title of "Peters' History of Connecticut."

On the steep sides of the island rock hang several arm chairs, fastened to ladders, and secured by a counterpoise, in which fishermen set to catch salmon with dipping nets. In 1784, a bridge of timber, constructed by Colonel Hale, was projected over this fall, 365 feet long, and supported in the middle by the great rock, under which the highest floods pass without detriment. This is the first and only bridge that

* See Dr. Belknap's History of New Hampshire, Vol. III. p. 39.

has been erected upon this river, but it is in contemplation to erect another, thirty miles above, at the middle bar of Agar Falls, where the passage for the water between the rocks is about 100 feet wide. This place is in the township of Lebanon, two miles below Dartmouth College. This beautiful river, in its whole length, is lined on each side, with a great number of the most flourishing and pleasant towns in the United States. In its whole course it preserves a distance of from 80 to 100 miles from the sea coast.

Merrimack river is formed by the confluence of Pemigewasset and Winnipitoegee rivers; the former is a very rapid river, and springs from a white mountain, west of the noted mountains of that name; and before its junction with the Winnipitoegee branch, it receives from the west, Baker's river, a pleasant stream, forty miles in length, and several smaller streams. The Winnipitoegee branch rises from the lake of the same name. The stream which issues from the lake is small, and in its course passes through a bay twelve miles long, and from three to five broad. A few miles from its entrance into the Pemigewasset, is a place called the Wares, remarkable for the number of salmon and shad which are here caught. The river is wide, and so shallow that the fishermen turn the course of the river in a short time, or compress it into a narrow channel, where they fix their gill nets, and take the fish as they pass up the stream. After the Pemigewasset receives the waters of Winnipitoegee, it takes the name of Merrimack; and after a course of about ninety miles, first in a southerly, and then in an easterly direction, and passing over Hookset, Amuskeag, and Pantucket Falls, empties into the sea at Newburyport. From the west it receives, Blackwater, Contoocook, Piscataquoag, Souhegan, Nashua, and Concord rivers; from the east, Bowcook, Suncook, Colias, Beaver, Spicket, and Powow rivers. Contoocook heads near Monadnock mountain, is very rapid, and ten or twelve miles from its mouth is 100 yards wide. Just before its entrance into the Merrimack it branches and forms a beautiful island of five or six acres. This island is remarkable, as being the spot where a Mrs. Dunstan performed an extraordinary exploit. This woman had been taken by a party of Indians from Haverhill in Massachusetts, and carried to this island. The Indians, eight or ten in number, fatigued, and thinking themselves secure, fell asleep. She improved this opportunity to make her escape, and that she might effect it without danger of being pursued, she, with one of their tomahawks killed them all, and scalped them, and took their canoe, and returned down the river to Haverhill, and carried the scalps to Boston, where she was generously rewarded.

A bridge has lately been projected over Amuskeag Falls, 556 feet in length, and 80 feet wide, supported by five piers, and an abutment on each side; the top of the bridge is thirty feet from the bottom of the river. In the construction of the wood work 2000 tons of timber were used; and what is remarkable, this bridge was rendered passable for travellers in fifty-seven days after it was begun. Two other bridges are building over this river in Massachusetts.

"The Piscataqua is the only large river whose whole course is in New Hampshire. Its head is a pond in the N. E. corner of the town of Wakefield, and its general course thence, to the sea, is S. S. E. about forty miles. It divides New Hampshire from York County, in the district of Maine, and is called Salmon-fall river, from its head to the lower falls at Berwick, where it assumes the name of Newichawannock, which it bears till it meets with Cochecho river, which comes from Dover, when both run together in one channel to Hilton's Point, where the western branch meets it. From this junction to the sea, the river is so rapid that it never freezes; the distance is seven miles, and the course generally from S. to S. E. The western branch is formed by

Swampscot river, which comes from Exeter. Winnicot river, which comes through Greenland, and Lamprey river, which divides Newmarket from Durham; these empty into a bay, four miles wide, called the Great Bay. The water in its further progress is contracted into a lesser bay, and then it receives Oyfter river, which runs through Durham and Back river, which comes from Dover, and at length meets with the main stream at Hilton's Point. The tide rises into all these bays, and branches as far as the lower falls in each river, and forms a most rapid current, especially at the season of the freshets, when the ebb continues about two hours longer than the flood; and were it not for the numerous eddies, formed by the indentings of the shore, the ferries would then be impassable.

At the lower falls in the several branches of the river, are landing places, whence lumber and other country produce is transported, and vessels or boats from below discharge their lading: so that in each river there is a convenient trading-place, not more than twelve or fifteen miles distant from Portsmouth, with which there is constant communication by every tide. Thus the river, from its form and the situation of its branches, is extremely favourable to the purposes of navigation and commerce.

At Dover is a high neck of land, between the main branch of Piscataqua and Back river, about two miles long, and half a mile wide, rising gently along a fine road, and declining on each side like a ship's deck. It commands an extensive and variegated prospect of the rivers, bays, adjacent shores, and distant mountains. It has often been admired by travellers, as an elegant situation for a city, and by military gentlemen, for a fortress. The first settlers pitched here, but the trade has long since been removed to Cochecho Falls, about four miles farther up; and this beautiful spot is almost deserted of inhabitants."*

Amariscoggin and Saco rivers are principally in the district of Main, and will be described under that head.

LAKES.] Winnipiscogee lake, is the largest collection of water in New Hampshire. It is about 24 miles in length, from S. E. to N. W. and of very unequal breadth, from 3 to 12 miles. It is full of islands, and is supplied with numerous rivulets from the surrounding mountains. This lake is frozen about three months in a year, and many sleighs and teams from the circumjacent towns cross it on the ice. In summer it is navigable its whole length. The landing on the S. E. side of the lake is 26 miles from Dover landing, where the tide flows.

The other considerable lakes are, Umbagog, in the N. E. corner of the State, and partly in the district of Main, Squam, Sunnapee, and Great Ossapee.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] Of these there is a great variety in this State. The intervale lands upon the margin of the large rivers are the most valuable, because they are overflowed and enriched every year by the water from the uplands, which brings down a fat slime or sediment. There are generally two strata of intervale lands on the borders of the large rivers, one is overflowed every year; the other, which is considerably higher, only in very high freshets. These intervale lands are of various breadth, according to the near or remote situation of the hills. On Connecticut river, they are from a quarter of a mile to a mile and a half on each side; and it is observable, that they yield wheat in greater abundance and perfection than the same kind of soil east of the height of land. These lands, in every part of the State, yield all the other kinds of grain in the greatest perfection; but are not so good for pasture as the uplands of a proper quality. The wide-spreading hills are generally much esteemed as warm and rich; rocky, moist land is accounted good for pasture; drained swamps have a deep mellow soil; and the valleys between hills are generally very productive.

Apples

Apples and pears are the most common, and the principal fruits cultivated in this State. No good husbandman thinks his farm complete without an orchard.

Agriculture is the chief business of the inhabitants of this State. Beef, pork, mutton, poultry, wheat, rye, Indian corn, barley, pulse, butter, cheese, flax, hemp, hops, esculent plants and roots, articles which will always find a market, may be produced in almost any quantity in New Hampshire.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants in the south-western quarter of this State generally carry their produce to Boston. In the middle and northern part, as far as the Lower Coos, they trade at Portsmouth. Above the Lower Coos there are yet no convenient roads directly to the sea-coast. The people on the upper branches of Saco river find their nearest market at Portland, in the district of Maine; and thither the inhabitants of Upper Coos have generally carried their produce; some have gone in the other direction to New York market. But from a survey made in 1782, it was found that a road from the upper Ammonoosuck, which empties into Connecticut river, to the head of navigation in Kennebeck river, is very practicable: the distance 80 or 90 miles; and for a third part of that distance from Kennebeck, there are already roads and settlements.

The articles and the quantity of each, exported and imported into the port of Pascataqua, in two years following October 1st, 1789, will appear from the following tables taken from Dr. Belknap's History.

TABLE of EXPORTATION from the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

<i>Articles exported.</i>		<i>To Europe.</i>	<i>W. Indies.</i>	<i>N. Scotia.</i>	<i>Africa.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
1000 feet of Pine Boards	- -	6247	11,622	96	69	18,034
Ditto, feet of oak plank	- -	378	26	—	—	404
Ditto, staves and heading	- -	1317	1608	44	—	2969
Ditto, clapboards	- -	2	19	—	—	21
Ditto, shingles	- -	—	268	—	—	268
Ditto, hoops	- -	—	79 $\frac{1}{4}$	7	—	86 $\frac{1}{4}$
Feet of oar rafters	- -	47,000	950	—	—	47,950
Tons of pine timber	- -	88 $\frac{1}{2}$	86	—	—	174 $\frac{1}{2}$
Ditto, oak timber	- -	251	20	—	—	271
Frames of houses	- -	—	12	—	—	12
Pine masts	- -	41	4	—	—	45
Spruce spars	- -	13	72	—	—	85
Shook hogsheds	- -	—	2079	—	—	2079
Waggons	- -	—	2	—	—	2
Pairs of cart wheels	- -	—	14	—	—	14
Sets of yokes and bows	- -	—	28	—	—	28
Boats	- -	—	30	—	—	30
Handspikes	- -	80	—	—	—	80
Quintals of dry fish	- -	250	26,207	—	—	26,457
Barrels of pickled fish	- -	—	501	—	—	501
Ditto, whale oil	- -	—	120	—	—	120
Ditto, tar	- -	1613	60	—	—	1673
		Q q 2				Casks

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

<i>Articles exported</i>	<i>To Europe.</i>	<i>W. Indies</i>	<i>N. Scotia.</i>	<i>Africa.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Casks of flax-seed	1798	—	—	—	1798
Barrels of beef	—	2775	2	—	2777
Ditto, pork	—	9	1	—	10
Ditto, rice	—	—	—	2	2
Bushels of Indian corn	—	391	—	2000	2391
Oxen and cows	—	577	33	—	610
Horses	—	207	2	—	209
Sheep	—	261	229	—	490
Gallons of N. E. rum	—	—	150	1449	1599
Ditto, Madeira wine	—	845	—	—	845
Thousands of bricks	—	129	—	—	129
Tons of pot ash	88½	—	—	—	88½
Ditto, pearl ash	30½	—	—	—	30½
Boxes of candles	—	28	—	—	28

Total value of exportation for two years - 296,839 dollars 51 cents.

TABLE of IMPORTATION into the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

<i>Articles imported from</i>	<i>Europe.</i>	<i>West Indies.</i>	<i>N. Scotia.</i>	<i>Total.</i>
Gallons of rum	—	138,911	—	138,911
Do. gin	—	22½	—	22½
Do. molasses	—	270,785	—	270,785
Do. wine } from Madeira }	—	—	—	4721
Do. porter	457	—	—	457
lbs. of unrefined sugar	—	546,648	—	546,648
Do. loaf sugar	—	—	77	77
Do. coffee	—	68,633	—	68,633
Do. cotton	—	17,564	—	17,564
Do. cocoa	—	27,944	—	27,944
Do. cheese	1056	—	—	1056
Do. tea	2696	86	—	2782
Do. twine	2204	—	—	2204
Do. nails	16,890	—	—	16,890
Hundreds of cordage	17,1,7	—	—	17,1,7
Do. hemp	940--	—	—	940--
Bushels of salt	(part)	(part)	—	98,336
Do. sea coal	3131	—	—	3131
lbs. of steel unwrought	16,527	—	—	16,527
Do. bar and sheet lead	4336	—	—	4336
Grindstones	—	—	(a few not ascertained.)	—

N. B. "What comes coast-ways from any of the United States cannot be ascertained; as no regular entries are made where only the produce of the United States is on board: except accompanied with more than two hundred dollars value of foreign articles. The value of imported articles is generally governed by the Boston market."

TABLE

TABLE of CLEARANCES at the Port of PASCATAQUA, from October 1, 1789, to October 1, 1791.

	Ships and Snows.	Brigantines.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Total of vessels.	American tonnage	French ditto.	British ditto.	Portuguese ditto.	Total of tonnage.
France										
French West Indies -	17	70	39	10	136	16616	264			16880
St. Peter's and Miquelon -			8	1	9	428	34			462
England -	16	25	1		42	6725		441		7166
Scotland -		4			4	616				616
Ireland -	1	3			4	666				666
British West Indies -	8	3	4	1	16			3134		3134
Nova Scotia -			12		12			502		502
Portugal -										
Portuguese Islands -	1				1				162	162
Holland and Plantations -		2			2	233				233
Denmark and Islands -										
Africa -			1		1	110				110
Coasting and cod fishery -			40	10	50	1166				1166
Total -	43	107	105	22	277	26560	298	4077	162	31097

STATEMENT of the FISHERIES at PASCATAQUA and its neighbourhood.

Schooners -	27	} employed in the Cod and Scale Fishery annually.
Boats -	20	
Tonnage -	630	
Seamen -	250	

*The Schooners, Boats, and Seamen, belonging to the Isles of Shoals are not included in the above estimation.

Product of the Fishery in the year 1791.

Quintals made	Merchantable fish	-	5170
	Jamaica ditto	-	14217
	Scale ditto	-	6463
Total			25850

The fish made at the Isles of Shoals are included in this statement.

The success of the fishery in this season was uncommonly good.

The staple commodities of New Hampshire are ships, lumber, provisions, fish, horses, pot and pearl ashes, and flax seed.—Ships are built in all the towns contiguous to

to the river Piscataqua and its branches. The number of ships, built in 1790, was 8; in 1791, 20.

The number of ships and other vessels belonging to the port of Piscataqua, in 1791, was as follows: above 100 tons, 33; under 100 tons, 50—in all 83.

The people in the country generally manufacture their own clothing; and considerable quantities of tow cloth for exportation. The other manufactures are pot and pearl ashes, maple sugar, bricks and pottery, and some iron, not sufficient, however, for home consumption, though it might be made an article of exportation.

BANK.] By act of assembly, of January, 1792, a bank, by the name of "The Bank of New Hampshire," was established, to continue fifty years, under the management of a president and seven directors. The capital stock is 60,000 dollars; and the stockholders have liberty to increase it to 200,000 dollars specie, and 100,000 dollars in any other estate.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The number of inhabitants in 1790, has been mentioned in the preceding table of divisions. In 1767 they were estimated at 52,700. The mean increasing ratio per annum since, Dr. Belknap reckons at 3883. According to this mode of computation, the number of people in New Hampshire has actually doubled in less than 19 years; 7 of those 19 were years of war.

Dr. Belknap mentions a number of instances of remarkable longevity in this State. In Barrington, 14 of the first settlers were living in 1785, who were between 80 and 90 years of age. In Londonderry, the first planters lived on an average, to 80 years, and some to 104. One Robert Macklin, a native of Scotland, died at Wakefield, in 1787, aged 115. He frequently walked from Portsmouth to Boston, 66 miles, in one day, and returned the next. He performed this journey the last time, when he was 80 years old.

The inhabitants of New Hampshire, like the settlers in all new countries, are in general, a hardy, robust, active, brave people. The advantages of early education have not been so generally enjoyed, as good men have wished; in consequence of which there has been a deficiency of persons properly qualified to fill the various departments of government. But since the revolution, the means of information and improvement have been increased and extended, and this political evil in a great measure remedied.

"The free indulgence of spirituous liquors has been, and is now, one of the greatest faults of many of the people of New Hampshire; especially in the neighbourhood of the river Piscataqua and its branches, and wherever the business of getting lumber forms the principal employment of the people. In travelling up the country it affords pleasure to observe the various articles of produce and manufacture coming to market; but in travelling down the country it is equally disgusting to meet the same teams returning, loaded with casks of rum, along with fish, salt, and other necessary articles. Among husbandmen, cyder is their common drink. Malt liquor is not so frequently used as its wholesomeness deserves. But after all, there are no persons more robust and healthy, than those, whose only or principal drink is the simple element, with which nature has universally and bountifully supplied this happy land."*

COLLEGE, ACADEMIES, &c.] The only college in this State is in the township of Hanover, situated on a beautiful plain about half a mile east of Connecticut river, in latitude 43° 33'. It was named *Dartmouth College*, after the Right Honourable *William Earl of Dartmouth*, who was one of its principal benefactors. It was founded by the late pious and benevolent Dr. *Eleazer Wheelock*, who, in 1769, obtained a royal charter, wherein

* Dr. Belknap.

wherein ample privileges were granted, and suitable provision made for the education and instruction of youth of the Indian tribes, in reading, writing, and all parts of learning which should appear necessary and expedient for civilizing and christianizing the children of Pagans, as well as in all liberal arts and sciences, and also of English youths and any others. The very humane and laudable attempts which have been made to christianize and educate the Indians, have not, through their native untractableness, been crowned with that success which was hoped and expected. Its situation in a frontier country exposed it during the late war to many inconveniencies, which impeded its prosperity. It flourished, however, amidst all its embarrassments, and is now one of the most growing seminaries in the United States.

The funds of this college consist chiefly in lands, amounting to about 80,000 acres, which are increasing in value, in proportion to the growth of the country. Twelve hundred acres lie contiguous to the college, and are capable of the best improvement. Twelve thousand acres lie in Vermont. A tract of 8 miles square was granted by the assembly of New Hampshire in 1789. The revenue of the college, arising from the lands, amounts annually to 140l. By contracts already made, it will amount in four years to 450l; and in twelve years to 650l. The income from tuition is about 600l. per annum.

The number of under graduates, in 1790, was about 150; they have since increased. A grammar school of about 50 or 60 scholars is annexed to the college.

The students are under the immediate government and instruction of a president, who is also professor of history; a professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, a professor of languages, and two tutors. In the 22 years since the college was founded, 479 students have received degrees, 140 of whom are, or have been, ministers of the gospel, and 448 are now living.

The college is furnished with a handsome library, and a philosophical apparatus tolerably complete. A new college building, of wood, 150 by 50 feet, and three stories high, was erected in 1786, and since finished, containing 36 rooms for students. Its situation is elevated, healthful, and pleasant, commanding an extensive prospect to the west. There are three other public buildings belonging to the college.

There are a number of academies in this State; the principal of which is at Exeter, founded and endowed by the Hon. John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, and incorporated by act of assembly in 1781, by the name of "Phillips's Exeter Academy." It is a very respectable and useful institution, under the inspection of a board of trustees, and the immediate government and instruction of a preceptor and an assistant. It has a fund of nearly 10,000l, one fifth of which is in lands not yet productive. The present annual income is 480l. It has commonly between 50 and 60 students.

An Academy at New Ipswich was incorporated in 1789; and has a fund of about 1000l. and generally from 40 to 50 scholars.

There is another academy at Atkinson, founded by the Hon. Nathaniel Peabody, who has endowed it with a donation of 1000 acres of land. It was incorporated in 1790.

At Amherst, an academy was incorporated in 1791, by the name of the "*Aurean Academy*." Similar institutions are forming at Charlestown, Concord, and other places, which, with the peculiar attention which has lately been paid to schools by the legislature, and the establishment of social libraries in several towns, afford a pleasing prospect of the increase of literature and useful knowledge in this State:

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portsmouth is the largest town in this State. Its longitude is 70° 40' from the observatory at Greenwich. It is about two miles from the sea, on the

south side of Piscataqua river. It contains about 640 dwelling houses, and nearly as many other buildings, besides those for public uses, which are three congregational churches, one episcopal, one universalist, a state house, market house, four school houses, and a work house.

Its harbour is one of the finest on the continent, having a sufficient depth of water for vessels of any burthen. It is defended against storms by the adjacent land, in such a manner, as that ships may securely ride there in any season of the year. Besides, the harbour is so well fortified by nature that very little art will be necessary to render it impregnable. Its vicinity to the sea renders it very convenient for naval trade. A light house, with a single light, stands at the entrance of the harbour. Ships of war have been built here; among others, the *America*, of 74 guns, launched Nov. 1782, and presented to the King of France by the Congress of the United States.

Exeter is 15 miles S. W. from Portsmouth, situated at the head of navigation, upon Swamscot, or Exeter river. The tide rises here 11 feet, it is well situated for a manufacturing town, and has already a duck manufactory, in its infancy---6 saw mills, a fulling mill, flitting mill, paper mill, snuff mill, two chocolate and 10 grist mills, iron works, and a printing office. The public buildings are two congregational churches, an academy, a new and handsome court house and a gaol. The public offices of the State are kept here. Formerly this town was famous for ship building, but this business has not flourished since its interruption by the war.

Concord is a pleasant, flourishing, inland town, situated on the west bank of Merrimack river, 54 miles W. N. W. from Portsmouth. The general court, of late, have commonly held their sessions here; and from its central situation, and a thriving back country, it will probably soon become the permanent seat of government. Much of the trade of the upper country centers in this town.

Dover, Amherst, Keen, Charlestown, Plymouth, and Haverhill, are the other most considerable towns in this State. Haverill is a new, thriving town, on the east side of Connecticut river, in Lower Coos. It is the most considerable town in the county of Grafton, and has a well-constructed court house and a congregational church. In it is a bed of iron ore, which has yielded some profit to the proprietor---also a quarry of fine stone, from which the people are supplied with chimney pieces, hearth stones, &c. It has also a fulling mill and an oil mill, and many other excellent mill seats.

CURIOSITIES AND CANAL.] In the township of Chester is a circular eminence, half a mile in diameter, and 400 feet high, called Rattlesnake Hill. On the south side, 10 yards from its base, is the entrance of a cave called the Devil's Den, in which is a room 15 or 20 feet square and 4 feet high, floored and circled by a regular rock, from the upper part of which are dependent many excrescences, nearly in the form and size of a pear, and when approached by a torch throw out a sparkling lustre of almost every hue. Many frightful stories have been told of this cave by those who delight in the marvellous. It is a cold, dreary, gloomy place.

In the town of Durham is a rock, computed to weigh 60 or 70 tons. It lies so exactly poised on another rock, as to be easily moved with one finger. It is on the top of a hill, and appears to be natural. In the township of Atkinson, in a large meadow, there is a small island of 6 or 7 acres, which was formerly loaded with valuable pine timber, and other forest wood. When the meadow is overflowed, by means of an artificial dam, this island rises with the water, which is sometimes 6 feet. Near the middle of the island is a small pond, which has been gradually lessening ever since it was known, and is now almost covered with verdure. In this place a pole 50 feet long has disappeared, without

without finding bottom. In the water of that pond, there have been fish in plenty, which, when the meadow has been overflowed, have appeared there, and when the water has been drawn off, have been left on the meadow, at which time the island settles to its usual place.

In the year 1791, a canal was cut through the marshes, which opens an inland navigation, from Hampton, through Salisbury, into Merrimack River, for about 8 miles. By this passage, loaded boats may be conducted with the utmost ease and safety.

RELIGION.] The principal denominations of Christians in this State are Congregationalists, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists, and Quakers. There is a small society of Sandemanians, and another of Universalists, in Portsmouth. For the distinguishing characteristics of these several sects, see the general account of the United States, article RELIGION.

“ The people in general throughout the State are professors of the Christian religion in some form or other. There is, however, a sort of *wise men*, who pretend to reject it; but they have not yet been able to substitute a better in its place.” *

CONSTITUTION.] The citizens of this State have lately formed for themselves a constitution of government upon the same general principles with their former one, which is not yet published.

HISTORY.] The first discovery made by the English of any part of New Hampshire, was in 1614, by Captain John Smith, who ranged the shore from Penobscot to Cape Cod; and in this rout, discovered the river Pascataqua. On his return to England, he published a description of the country, with a map of the coast, which he presented to Prince Charles, who gave it the name of NEW ENGLAND. The first settlement was made in 1623.

New Hampshire was for many years under the jurisdiction of the Governor of Massachusetts, yet they had a separate legislature. They ever bore a proportionable share of the expences and levies in all enterprises, expeditions, and military exertions, whether planned by the colony or the crown. In every stage of the opposition that was made to the incroachments of the British parliament, the people, who ever had a high sense of liberty, cheerfully bore their part. At the commencement of hostilities, indeed, while their council was appointed by royal *mandamus*, their patriotic ardour was checked by these crown officers. But when freed from this restraint, they flew eagerly to the American standard, when the voice of their country declared for war, and their troops had a large share of the hazard and fatigue, as well as of the glory of accomplishing the late revolution.

As the best and only history of this State, the reader is referred to the Rev. Dr. Belknap's, published complete, in 3 vols. 8vo. in 1792, written in a pure, neat, historic style—The two first volumes contain the history of New Hampshire; the third contains “ A geographical description of the State, with sketches of its natural history, productions and improvements, laws and government,” and is replete with curious and useful information, and interspersed with many ingenious and philosophical remarks. From this volume much assistance has been derived, in making the foregoing compilation.

DISTRICT OF MAIN.

(Belonging to Massachusetts.)

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Sq. miles.
Length	170	} between { 4° and 9° E. Longitude. 43° and 48° N. Latitude. }	21,750
Breadth	125		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Lower Canada, from which it is separated by the high lands; east, by the river St. Croix,* and a line drawn due north from its source to the said highlands, which divides it from the Province of New Brunswick; south, by the Atlantic Ocean; west, by New Hampshire.

The Old Province of Main (included in the above limits) is bounded on the west by New Hampshire; south by the Atlantic Ocean, and north and north-east by the land, called in some maps Sagadahock. It was supposed at the time of its being made a province, to have been 120 miles square; but by a settlement of the line, in 1737, on the part, or side adjoining New Hampshire, the form of the land was reduced from a square to that of a diamond. The Province of Main contains, according to Douglas, about 9,600 square miles.

DIVISIONS.] The District of Main is divided into five counties, viz.

Counties.	No. Inhabitants.	Chief Towns.	Inhabitants.
York	28,821	York	2,900
Cumberland	25,450	Portland Lat. 43° 43'	2,240
		{ Pownalborough	2,055
Lincoln	29,962	{ Hallowell	1,194
		{ Waldoborough	1,210
Hancock	9,549	Penobscot	1,048
Washington	2,758	Machias	818
Total	96,540		

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND CLIMATE.] The district of Main, though an elevated tract of country, cannot be called mountainous. A great proportion of the lands are arable and exceedingly fertile, particularly between Penobscot and Kennebeck

* What river is referred to under the name of St. Croix, in the treaty of 1783, is at present a subject of dispute between Great Britain and the United States. The French, according to their mode of taking possession, always fixed a cross in every river they came to. Almost every river on the coast they discovered, has in turn been called La Riviere de St. Croix.

"There are three rivers that empty themselves into the Bay of Passamaquaddy, the easternmost always called by the native Indians and French, St. Croix, and the middle one Schoodiac. Before the commencement of the late war, Governor Barnard sent Mr. Mitchell, a surveyor, and several others, to explore the Bay of Passamaquaddy, to examine the natives, and to find out which was the true river St. Croix. They did accordingly, and reported it to be the easternmost river, and returned correspondent plans of their survey. At the forming of the treaty of peace, the commissioners had Mitchell's maps; and in fixing the boundary between that part of Nova Scotia, now called New Brunswick, and the Commonwealth of Massachusetts, they considered it to be the river laid down by him. After the peace, the British subjects of Nova Scotia took possession of all the lands between St. Croix and Schoodiac rivers, which tract is said to be nearly as large as the State of New Hampshire, and now hold possession of the same, asserting that Schoodiac is the true St. Croix; they also claim all the islands in the Bay of Passamaquaddy, although several of them lie several miles west of the river which they call the boundary."

rivers. On some parts of the sea coast the lands are but indifferent; but this defect might easily be remedied, by manuring it with a marine vegetable, called rock weed, which grows on the rocks between high and low water mark, all along the shores. It makes a most excellent manure, and the supply is immense. It generally grows in this district on all the shores that are washed by the sea; and the breadth of the border is in proportion to the height the tide rises, which, in the eastern part of the district, is nearly 30 feet. It is estimated that there are 4000 acres of this rock weed on this coast, and that each acre will produce annually 20 loads, making in the whole 80,000 loads of the best manure, 10 loads of which spread upon an acre are reckoned sufficient for three years. The country has a large proportion of dead swamps and sunken lands, which are easily drained, and leave a rich, fat soil. The interior country is universally represented as being of an excellent soil, well adapted both for tillage and pasture.---The lands in general are easily cleared, having but little under brush.

The district of Main may naturally be considered in three divisions---The *first* comprehending the tract lying east of Penobscot river, of about 4,500,000 acres---The *second*, and best tract, of about 4,000,000 acres, lying between Penobscot and Kennebeck rivers---The *third*, first settled and most populous at present, west of Kennebeck river, containing also about 4,000,000 acres.

The climate does not materially differ from the rest of New England. The weather is more regular in the winter, which usually lasts, with severity, from the middle of December to the last of March; during this time the ponds and fresh water rivers are passable on the ice, and sleighing continues uninterrupted by thaws, which are common in the three southern New England States. Although vegetation in the spring commences earlier in these States than in the district of Main, yet in the latter it is much more rapid. The elevation of the lands in general---the purity of the air, which is rendered sweet and salubrious by the balsamic qualities of many of the forest trees---the limpid streams, both large and small, which abundantly water this country, and the regularity of the weather, all unite to render this one of the healthiest countries in the world.

RIVERS, LAKES, &c.] This district has a vast coast of about 240 miles, in which distance there is an abundance of safe and commodious harbours; besides which there is a security given to navigation, on some part of the coast, by what is called the *inland passage*. Almost the whole coast is lined with islands, among which vessels may generally anchor with safety.

The country of which we are speaking, is watered by many large and small rivers. The principal are the following, as you proceed from east to west. St. Croix, a short river, issuing from a large pond in the vicinity of St. John's river, remarkable only for its forming a part of the eastern boundary of the United States. Next is Passamaquaddy river, which, with the Schoodiac from the west, falls by one mouth into Passamaquaddy Bay. Opposite Mount Desert Island, which is about 15 miles long and 12 broad, Union river empties into a large bay. A short distance west is the noble Penobscot, which rises in two branches from the highlands. Between the source of the west fork, and its junction with the east, is Moosehead Lake, 30 or 40 miles long and 15 wide. The eastern branch passes through several smaller lakes. From *The Forks*, as they are called, the Penobscot Indians pass to Canada, up either branch, principally the west, the source of which they say is not more than 20 miles from the waters that empty into the river St. Lawrence. At the Forks is a remarkable high mountain. From the Forks down to Indian Old Town, situated on an island in this river, is about 60 miles, 40 of which the water flows in a still, smooth stream, and in the whole distance there are no falls to interrupt the passing of boats. In this distance,

the river widens, and embraces a large number of small islands; and about half way receives two considerable tributary streams, one from the east and the other from the west, whose mouths are nearly opposite each other. About 60 rods below Indian Old Town are the Great Falls, where is a carrying-place of about 20 rods; thence, 12 miles to the head of the tide, there are no falls to obstruct boats. Vessels of 30 tons, come within a mile of the head of the tide. Thence, 35 miles to the head of the bay, to the site of Old Fort Pownal, the river is remarkably straight, and easily navigated. Passing by Majabagadusc on the east, 7 miles, and Owl's Head, 20 miles further, on the west, you enter the ocean.

Proceeding westward, over several small creeks, you come to Kennebeck, one of the finest rivers in this country. One branch of it rises in the highlands, a short distance from a branch of the Chaudiere, which empties into the St. Lawrence; another branch rises in Moose Head Lake. In its course, it receives Sandy river from the west, and Sebasticook and several others from the east, and passes to the sea by Cape Small Point. It is navigable for vessels of 150 tons upwards of 40 miles from the sea.

Sheepscut river is navigable 20 or 30 miles, and empties into the ocean a little to the east of Kennebeck. On this river is the important port of Wiscasset, in the township of Pownalborough.

Ameriscoggin, now more generally called Androscoggin, properly speaking, is but the main western branch of the Kennebeck. Its sources are north of Lake Umbagog. Its course is southwardly, till it approaches near the White Mountains, from which it receives Moose and Peabody rivers, and then turns to the east, and then south-east, in which course it passes within two miles of the sea-coast, and turning north runs over Pejepscog, falls into Merry Meeting Bay, where it forms a junction with the Kennebeck, 20 miles from the sea. Formerly, from this bay to the sea, the confluent stream was called Saggadahock. The lands on this river are very good. Steven's river heads within a mile of Merry Meeting Bay. A canal, uniting these waters, has lately been opened. Cussen's river is between Freeport and North Yarmouth. Royal's river empties itself into the sea in North Yarmouth. Presumpscot is fed by Sebacock Lake, and meets the sea at Falmouth. Nonescuch river passes to sea through Scarborough. It receives its name from its extraordinary freshets.

Saco river is one of the three largest rivers in this district. The principal part of its water falls from the White Mountains. Its course, some distance from its source, is southwardly; it then suddenly bends to the east, and crosses into the district of Maine, and then makes a large bend to the north-east, east, and south-west, embracing the fine township of Fryeburg, in the county of York. Its general course thence to the sea is S. E. Great and Little Ossipee rivers fall into it from the west. This river is navigable for ships to Saco Falls, about six miles from the sea. Here the river is broken by Indian Island, over which is the Post-road. A bridge is thrown over each of the branches. A number of mills are erected here, to which logs are floated from 40 or 50 miles above; and vessels can come quite to the mills to take in the lumber. Four million feet of pine boards were annually sawed at these mills before the war. Biddeford and Pepperill-borough lie on either side of the mouth of this river. Mousom, York, and Cape Neddock rivers, in the county of York, are short and inconsiderable streams.

We have already mentioned the most considerable lakes, which are known in this district. Lake Sebacock, 18 miles N. W. of Portland, in extent is equal to two large townships,

townships, and is connected with Long Pond, on the N. W. by Sungo river. The whole extent of these waters is nearly 30 miles N. W. and S. E.

BAYS AND CAPES.] The principal bays are, Passamaquaddy, Machias, Penobscot, Casco, and Wells. Of these, Penobscot and Casco are the most remarkable. Both are full of islands, some of which are large enough for townships. Long Island, in the center of Penobscot Bay, is 15 miles in length, and from 2 to 3 in breadth, and forms an incorporated township, by the name of Islesborough, containing about 400 inhabitants. On a fine peninsula on the east side of the bay the British built a fort and made a settlement, which is now the shire town in the county of Hancock. The points of Casco Bay are, Cape Small Point on the east, and Cape Elizabeth on the west. This bay is about 25 miles wide, and 14 deep, forming a most excellent harbour for vessels of any burden, and interspersed with a multitude of islands, some of which are nearly large enough for townships. Wells' Bay lies between Cape Porpoise and Cape Neddock.

PRODUCTIONS.] The soil of this country in general, where it is properly fitted to receive the seed, appears to be very friendly to the growth of wheat, rye, barley, oats, peas, hemp, flax, as well as for the production of almost all kinds of culinary roots and plants, and for English grass; and also for Indian corn, provided the seed be procured from a more northern climate. Hops are the spontaneous growth of this country. It is yet problematical, whether apple and other fruit-trees will flourish in the northern and eastern parts of this district. It is said, however, that a century ago, there were good orchards within the county of Washington, about the Bay of Passamaquaddy, which were destroyed after Colonel Church broke up the French settlements at that place. From some experiments of the present inhabitants, the presumption is rather against the growth of fruit-trees. In the counties of York and Cumberland, fruit is as plenty as in New Hampshire. This country is equally good for grazing as for tillage, and large flocks of neat cattle may be fed both summer and winter.

The natural growth of this country consists of white pine and spruce trees in large quantities, suitable for masts, boards, and shingles: the white pine is, perhaps, of all others, the most useful and important; no wood will supply its place in building. Maple, beech, white and grey oak, and yellow birch, are the growth of this country. The birch is a large light tree, and is used for cabinet-work, and receives a polish little inferior to mahogany. The outer bark, which consists of a great number of layers, when separated, is as smooth and soft as the best writing-paper, and in some cases is a tolerable substitute for it. The low lands produce fir. This tree is fit neither for timber nor fuel; but it yields a balsam that is highly prized. This balsam is contained in small protuberances like blisters, under the smooth bark of the tree. The fir is an evergreen, resembling the spruce, but very tapering, and neither tall nor large.

Under this article the following remarks of General Lincoln merit a place:

“From the different rivers; in this eastern country, waters may be drawn for mills, and all water work; besides, many are the advantages which arise to a country, through which streams of water are so liberally interspersed, as they are in this; and especially when they abound, as many of these do, with fish of different kinds; among them are the salmon, shad, alewife, and others, which seek the quiet waters of the lakes, as the only places in which they can with safety lodge their spawns. From this source, the inland country may draw a supply of fish, equal to all their demands, (if they are not interrupted in their passage,) which are rendered peculiarly valuable,

valuable, as their annual return is at a season of the year when most needed, and when they can be cured with a very little salt; so that a long and free use of them will not be injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The certainty of the supply adds to its value. These fish, as is supposed, and of which there cannot, I think, be a doubt, return to the same waters yearly, in which they were spawned, unless some natural obstruction be thrown in their way. Whilst the people inland may be supplied with these fish, the inhabitants of the sea-coast may be supplied with the cod and other ground fish, which are allured quite into their harbours, in pursuit of the river fish, and may be taken with the greatest ease, as no other craft is necessary in many places than a common canoe. Great advantages arise also to those who live on the sea-coast, from the shell-fish, viz. the lobster, the scallop, and the clam. To these advantages may be added, those which arise from the forests being filled with the moose and deer, and the waters being covered with wild fowls of different kinds."

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.] From the first settlement of Maine, until the year 1774 or 1775, the inhabitants generally followed the lumber trade to the neglect of agriculture. This afforded an immediate profit. Large quantities of corn and other grain were annually imported from Boston and other places, without which it was supposed the inhabitants could not have subsisted. But the late war, by rendering these resources precarious, put the inhabitants upon their true interest, i. e. the cultivation of their lands. The inhabitants now raise a sufficient quantity for their own consumption; though too many are still more fond of the axe than of the plough. Their wool and flax are very good;—hemp has lately been tried with great success. Almost every family manufacture wool and flax into cloth, and make husbandry utensils of every kind for their own use.

EXPORTS.] This country abounds with lumber of various kinds, such as masts, which of late, however, have become scarce; white pine boards, ship timber, and every species of split lumber manufactured from pine and oak; these are exported from the different ports in immense quantities. Dried fish furnishes a capital article of export.

MINERALS.] Mountain and bog iron ore are found in some parts, and works have been erected for its manufacture.

There is a species of stone in Lebanon, in the county of York, which yields copras and sulphur.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] The erection of a college near Casco Bay is contemplated, and the legislature have proceeded so far in the business, as to determine on the principles of such an establishment. Academies in Hallowell, Berwick, Fryeburg, and Machias, have been incorporated by the legislature, and endowed with handsome grants of the public lands. And it is but just to observe, that town-schools are very generally maintained in most of the towns that are able to defray the expence, and a spirit of improvement is increasing.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Portland is the capital of the district of Maine. It is situated on a promontory in Casco Bay, and was formerly a part of Falmouth. In July 1786, this part of the town being the most populous and mercantile, and situated on the harbour, together with the islands which belong to Falmouth, was incorporated by the name of Portland. It has a most excellent, safe, and capacious harbour, which is seldom or never completely frozen over. It is near the Main Ocean, and is easy of access. The inhabitants carry on a considerable foreign trade, build ships, and are largely concerned in the fishery. It is one of the most thriving commercial towns in the commonwealth of Massachusetts. Although three fourths of it was laid in ashes
by

by the British fleet in 1775, it has since been entirely rebuilt, and contains about 2300 inhabitants. Among its public buildings are three churches, two for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians; and a handsome court-house.

A light-house has lately been erected on a point of land called Portland Head, at the entrance of the harbour. It is a stone edifice, 72 feet high, exclusive of the lantern.

York is 74 miles N. E. from Boston, and 9 from Portsmouth. It is divided into two parishes of Congregationalists. York River, which is navigable for vessels of 250 tons 6 or 7 miles from the sea, passes through the town. Over this river, about a mile from the sea, a wooden bridge was built in 1761, 270 feet long, exclusive of the wharves at each end, which reach to the channel, and 25 feet wide. The bridge stands on thirteen piers; and was planned and conducted by Major Samuel Sewall, an ingenious mechanic, and a native of the town. The model of Charles river bridge was taken from this, and was built under the superintendence of the same gentleman. It has also served as the model of Malden and Beverly bridges, and has been imitated, even in Europe, by those ingenious American artists, Messieurs Coxe and Thompson.

This town was settled as early as 1630, and was then called Agamenticus, from a remarkable high hill in it of that name, a noted land mark for mariners. It is in lat. 43° 16'.

About the year 1640, a great part of this town was incorporated by Sir Ferdinando Gorges, by the name of Georgiana. He appointed a Mayor and Aldermen, and made it a free port. In 1652, when it fell under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, it assumed the name of York, which it has since retained.

Hallowell is a very flourishing town, situated in latitude 44° 40', at the head of the tide waters on Kennebeck river. Pownalborough, Penobscot, and Machias, are also towns of considerable and increasing importance. Bangor, situated at the head of the tide waters on Penobscot river, latitude 45°, it is thought will in a few years become a place of very considerable trade. The other towns of consideration are, Kittery, Wells, Biddeford, Berwick, North Yarmouth, and Waldoborough.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, AND RELIGION.] For the first of these articles, see the table of divisions. There are no peculiar features in the character of the people of this district, to distinguish them from their neighbours in New Hampshire and Vermont. Placed as they are in like circumstances, they are like them, a brave; hardy, enterprising, industrious, hospitable people. The prevailing religious denominations are Congregationalists and Baptists; there are a few Episcopalians and Roman Catholics.

INDIANS.] The remains of the Penobscot tribe are the only Indians who take up their residence in this district. They consist of about 100 families, and live together in regular society at Indian Old Town, which is situated on an island of about 200 acres; in Penobscot river, just above the Great Falls. They are Roman Catholics, and have a priest, who resides among them, and administers the ordinances. They have a decent house for public worship, with a bell, and another building; where they meet to transact the public business of their tribe. In their assemblies all things are managed with the greatest order and decorum. The Sachems form the legislative and executive authority of the tribe; though the heads of all the families are invited to be present at their periodical public meetings. The tribe is increasing, in consequence of an obligation laid, by the Sachems, on the younger people, to marry early.

In a former war, this tribe lost their lands; but, at the commencement of the last war, the Provincial Congress granted them all the lands from the head of the tide in Penobscot river, included in lines drawn six miles from the river on each side, i. e. a tract, twelve miles wide, intersected in the middle by the river. They, however, consider that they have a right to hunt and fish as far as the mouth of the bay of Penobscot extends. This was their original right, in opposition to any other tribe, and they now occupy it.

CONSTITUTION.] The same as Massachusetts.

HISTORY.] The first attempt to settle this country was made in 1607, on the west side of Kennebeck, near the sea. No permanent settlement, however, was at this time effected. It does not appear that any further attempts were made until between the years 1620 and 1630.

The Dutch formerly had a settlement at the place, which is now called Newcastle, which was under the jurisdiction of the governor of New York, then called Manhadoes. The town was built on a beautiful neck of land, where rows of old cellars are now to be seen.

In 1635, Sir Ferdinando Gorges obtained a grant from the Council of Plymouth, of the tract of country between the rivers Pascataqua and Saggadahock, or Kennebeck; and up Kennebeck so far as to form a square of 120 miles. It is supposed that Sir Ferdinand first instituted government in this province.

In 1639, Gorges obtained from the Crown a charter of the soil and jurisdiction, containing as ample powers, perhaps, as the King of England ever granted to any subject.

In the same year he appointed a governor and council, and they administered justice to the settlers until about the year 1647, when hearing of the death of Gorges, they supposed their authority ceased; and the people on the spot universally combined and agreed to be under civil government, and to elect their officers annually.

Government was administered in this form until 1652, when the inhabitants submitted to the Massachusetts, who, by a new construction of their charter, which was given to Roswell and others in 1628, claimed the soil and jurisdiction of the province of Main, as far as the middle of Casco Bay. Main then first took the name of Yorkshire; and county courts were held in the manner they were in Massachusetts, and the towns had liberty to send their deputies to the general court at Boston.

In 1691, by charter from William and Mary, the province of Main, and the large territory eastward, extending to Nova Scotia, was incorporated with the Massachusetts Bay; since which it has been governed, and courts held as in other parts of the Massachusetts.

The separation of this district from Massachusetts, and its erection into an independent State, have been subjects discussed by the inhabitants in town meeting, by the appointment of the legislature. Such is the rapid settlement and growth of this country, that the period when this contemplated separation will take place is probably not far distant.

For the best historical account of this district, the reader is referred to "Memoirs of Sir Ferdinando Gorges," by the Rev. Dr. Belknap, published in the *Columbian Magazine* for 1788---and to Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts.

MASSACHUSETTS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Sq. Miles.
 Length 125 } between { 1° 30' and 5° 40' E. Long. } 6250
 Breadth 50 } { 41° 30' and 43° N. Lat.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Vermont and New Hampshire; east, by the Atlantic Ocean; south, by the Atlantic, Rhode Island and Connecticut; west, by New York.

DIVISIONS.] This part of Massachusetts is divided into the following counties:

Counties.	No. Towns.	No. Hou.	No. Fam.	No. Inha.	Ch. Towns.	No. Inh.
Suffolk	23	6355	8038	44875	Boston	- 18038
Essex	- 22	7644	10883	57913	{ Salem	- 7921
					{ Newbury Port	4837
Middlesex	- 41	5998	7580	42737	{ Charlestown	1583
					{ Concord	- 1590
Hampshire	- 60	9181	9617	59681	{ Northampton	1628
					{ Springfield	- 1574
Plymouth	- 15	4240	5173	29535	Plymouth	- 2995
Bristol	- 15	4514	5441	31709	Taunton	- 3804
Barnstable	- 10	2343	2889	17354	Barnstable	- 2610
Duke's	- 3 }		{ 558	3265	Edgartown	- 1352
Nantucket	- 1 }	1013	{ 872	4620	Sherburne	- 4620
Worcester	- 49	8613	9729	56807	Worcester	- 2095
Berkshire	- 26	4476	4899	330291	{ Stockbridge	- 1336
					{ Great Barrington	1373
Eleven counties 265		54377	65779	378787	Population for every square mile 60.	

CLIMATE.] See New England.

RIVERS.] Housatonic river rises from several sources in the western parts of this State, and flows southerly through Connecticut into Long Island Sound. Deerfield river falls into Connecticut river, from the west, between Deerfield and Greenfield. A most excellent and beautiful tract of meadow lies on its banks. Westfield river empties into the Connecticut at West Springfield. Connecticut river passes through this State, and intersects the county of Hampshire: in its course it runs over falls above Deerfield, and between Northampton and Springfield. A company, by the name of "The Proprietors of the Locks and Canals on Connecticut river," was incorporated by the General Court in 1792, for the purpose of rendering Connecticut river passable for boats and other things, from Chicapee river northward to New Hampshire. Miller's and Chicapee rivers fall into Connecticut on the east side; the former at Northfield, the latter at Springfield.

In the eastern part of the State is Merrimack, which we have already in part described. It is navigable for vessels of burden about twenty miles from its mouth, where it

it is obstructed by the first falls, or rapids, called Mitchell's Eddy, between Bradford and Haverhill. Vast quantities of ship timber, ranging timber, plank, deals, clapboards, shingles, staves, and other lumber, are brought down in rafts, so constructed, as to pass all the falls in the river except those of Amisakaeg and Pautucket. In the spring and summer considerable quantities of salmon, shad, and alewives are caught, which are either used as bait in the cod fishery, or pickled and shipped to the West Indies. There are twelve ferries across this river in the county of Essex. The bar across the mouth of this river is a very great incumbrance to the navigation, and is especially terrible to strangers. There are 16 feet water upon it at common tides. In 1787 the general court granted a sum of money for the erection of two sufficient light houses, and made the maintenance of them a public charge. The houses are of wood, and contrived to be removed at pleasure, so as to be always conformed to the shifting of the bar; and thus the single rule of bringing them in a line will be the only necessary direction for vessels approaching the harbour, and by this direction they may sail with safety, until they are abreast of the lights, where is a bold shore and good anchoring ground. The bridges over this river will be mentioned under that head.

Nashua, Concord, and Shawshen rivers, rise in this State, and run a north-easterly course into the Merrimack. Parker's river takes its rise in Rowley, and, after a course of a few miles, passes into the Sound which separates Plumb Island from the main land. It is navigable about two miles from its mouth. Ipswich and Chebacco rivers pass through the town of Ipswich into Ipswich Bay. Mistick river falls into Boston Harbour, east of the peninsula of Charlestown: it is navigable three miles to Medford.

Charles river is a considerable stream, the principal branch of which rises from a pond bordering on Hopkinton: it passes through Holliston and Bellingham, and divides Medway from Medfield, Wrentham and Franklin, and thence into Dedham, where, by a curious bend, it forms a peninsula of 900 acres of land. And what is very singular, a stream called Mother Brook, runs *out* of this river, in this town, and falls into Neponset river, which answers to a canal uniting the two rivers, and affords a number of excellent mill seats. From Dedham the course of the river is northerly through Newton, passing over romantic falls—it then bends to the north-east and east, through Watertown and Cambridge, and passes into Boston harbour, between Charlestown and Boston: it is navigable for boats to Watertown seven miles.

Neponset river originates chiefly from Muddy and Punkapog Ponds, in Stoughton, and Mashapog Pond in Sharon, and after passing over falls sufficient to carry mills, unites with other small streams, and forms a very constant supply of water for the many mills situated on the river below, until it meets the tide in Milton, from whence it is navigable for vessels of 150 tons burthen to the bay, distant about four miles. Neponset river, from Milton to the Bay, forms a regular and beautiful serpentine, interspersed with hillocks of wood so regularly placed, that from Milton Hill it affords one of the finest prospects in the world. Passing Fore and Back rivers in Weymouth, you come to North river, which rises in Indian Head Pond in Pembroke, and running in a serpentine course between Scituate and Marshfield passes to the sea. This river for its size is remarkable for its great depth of water, it being, in some places, not more than 40 or 50 feet wide, and yet vessels of 300 tons are built at Pembroke, 18 miles (as the river runs) from its mouth. This river is navigable for boats to the first fall, five miles from its source in Indian Head Pond; thence to the nearest waters which run into Taunton river is only three miles. A canal to connect the waters of these two rivers, which communicate with Narraganset and Massachusetts Bays, would be of great utility, as it would save a long and dangerous navigation round Cape Cod.

Taunton river is made up of several streams which unite in or near the town of Bridgewater. Its course is from N. E. to S. W. till it falls into Narraganset Bay at Tiverton, opposite the north end of Rhode Island. It receives a considerable tributary stream at Taunton from the north-west. The head waters of Pautucket and Providence rivers, in Rhode Island, and of Quinnabaug and Shetucket rivers, in Connecticut, are in this State.

CAVES, BAYS, ISLANDS, &c.] The only Capes of note, on the coast of this State, are Cape Ann on the north side of Massachusetts Bay, and Cape Cod on the south. Cape Cod, so called probably from the multitudes of cod fish which are found on its coast, is the south-easterly part of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts: in shape it resemble a man's arm when bended, with the hand turned inward towards the body. The Cape comprehends the county of Barnstable, and is between 70 and 80 miles in length.

Province Town is the hook of the Cape, and is generally narrow, the widest place not being more than three miles in extent. The harbour, which is one of the best in the State, opens to the southward, and has depth of water for any ships. *It was the first port entered by our forefathers when they came to settle in this country, in 1620.* This place has been in a state of thriving and decaying many times; it is now rising. It contains about ninety families, whose whole dependence is upon the sea for their support: they employ about twenty sail of vessels, great and small, in the cod fishery: they have been remarkably successful of late. Ten of their vessels, employed in 1790 upon the Grand Bank, took eleven thousand quintals of cod fish. They have not lost a vessel, or a man, in the business, since the war.

The houses stand upon the inner side of the hook of the Cape, fronting south-east, and looking into the harbour: they are small, one story high, and set up on blocks or piles, that the driving sands may pass under them, otherwise they would be buried in sand. The houses stand in one range upon the beach; the flakes on which they dry their fish are round them. The vessels run in upon the shore, which is a soft sand, throw their fish over, where they are washed from the salt, and carried up to the flakes on hand-barrows.

They raise nothing from their lands, but are wholly dependent upon Boston market, and other places, for every kind of vegetable production.

There are but two horses, and two yoke of oxen, kept in the town: they have about fifty cows, which feed in the spring upon beach grass, which grows here and there upon the shore; and in summer they feed in the sunken ponds and marshy places, that are found between the sand hills. Here the cows are seen wading, and even swimming, plunging their heads into the water up to their horns, picking a scanty subsistence from the roots and herbs produced in the water. They are fed in the winter on sedge cut upon the flats.

Except a border of loose land, which runs round the whole place, it is very broken and hilly. These hills are white sand, and their produce is whortleberry bushes, and small pitch pine shrubs. The pines, next the village, have been much cut off for firewood. Cutting away the wood exposes the hills to be torn away by the violence of the winds, and, in some instances, persons have been obliged to remove their houses to prevent being covered up. These hills and sand heaps are constantly shifting; and when torn away in one place, are piled up on another: it is not unfrequent to have their fish flakes covered with banks of sand like snow. Immediately in stepping from any house, the foot sinks in sand to the depth of the shoe. The most southerly point of this place, called Wood End, is five miles south-west from the village. What is called Race

Point, known to all seamen, is the north-westerly extremity of the Cape, and lies north-west from the village, distant three miles.

A traveller, in passing from the village over to Race Point, about mid-way, travels some distance through a pine wood, the trees about twenty feet in height; at length, he finds the path obstructed with a mound of sand, almost perpendicular, rising among the trees to their tops: his horse with difficulty mounts this precipice, his feet sinking almost to the knees in the sand. This volume of sand is gradually rolling into the woods with the winds, and as it covers the trees to the tops, they die. As soon as a traveller mounts this bank, a curious spectacle presents to view, a desert of white sand, five miles in length, parallel with the sea, and one mile and an half in breadth. The tops of the trees appear above the sand, but they are all dead: where they have been lately covered, the bark and twigs are still remaining, from others they are fallen off; some have been so long whipped and worn out with the sand and winds, that there is nothing remaining but the hearts and knots of the trees. But over the greater part of this desert the trees have long since disappeared.

After crossing this wilderness, where the horse sinks to his fetlocks at every step, you arrive at Race Point. Here are a number of huts erected by the persons who come over from the village to fish in boats: here they keep their fishing apparatus and lodge. At the distance of fifteen rods from the Point, the water is thirty fathoms in depth, and cod, haddock, and other kinds of fish, are taken in plenty, whenever the weather will permit. They take many kinds of fish with seines, such as pollock, mackarel, and herrings: the two latter are often taken in their harbour in great abundance. At this place, Race Point, are seen, at some times, hundreds of sharks lying on the shore, which have been caught by the boats when fishing for cod: they weigh from three to six hundred weight: their livers, which produce oil, are the only parts of them of which any use is made. They are taken by a large hook baited with a cod fish, and fastened to an iron chain with a swivel, to prevent them from biting or twisting it off. When the shark has seized the hook they drag him up to the stern of the boat, and being too large to take on board the boats there made use of, they row ashore with him, drag him up on the beach, rip him open, take out his liver, and the carcase is left to perish. Fishing, either at sea in vessels, or round the shore in boats, is the whole employment of all the inhabitants. There is no employment but this to which they can turn their attention: and the boys, as soon as they have strength to pull a codfish, are put on board a boat or a vessel.

As this harbour is of so much consequence, often affording a shelter from storms to vessels both inward and outward bound, it is of importance that there should always be a settlement here. The Province formerly afforded them some encouragement, besides exempting them from taxation. *That encouragement is now withholden*, and a poll-tax has been required, whether with good policy, has been doubted by many: the inhabitants complain of it, as an unreasonable burthen. Their employment is a great public benefit, and what they acquire is through many perils and the hardest labour.

The extent of Cape Cod, on the outer shore, beginning at Wood End, round to Buzzard's Bay, or to the line between Sandwich and Wareham, is about one hundred and thirty miles. The inner shore on Massachusetts Bay is about seventy-five miles. The road that is commonly travelled on to the Cape is on the inner side, and measured by this, the extent of the Cape will be as first mentioned. Cape Cod, in general, is a thin, barren soil, by far the most so of any part of New England: but the sea air impregnates all vegetables with a quality which renders them far more nutritive to cattle, than the same quantity far inland; it being an undoubted fact, that cattle will do well

in such pastures, as far up in the country would starve them at once. Their salt hay, which is almost their only forage, affords a manure which is also far superior to that which is made at a distance from the sea : this greatly assists their crops of corn and rye, beyond what the land promises in its appearance. The lands of Cape Cod could never support its inhabitants, which are nearly 17,000. A great part of the men and boys are constantly employed at sea. In this business they support themselves and families ; and it is observed, that the young people form family connections earlier in life than in any other part of the country ; which, perhaps, is one evidence that the means of subsistence are easily obtainable. Cape Cod is a nursery for seamen, and, in that view, one of the most important places in the State, or in America. If the cultivation of the sea is a blessing to any nation, we may consider the inhabitants of the Cape as the most valuable among our countrymen.

The Cape abounds with clear fresh ponds, generally stocked with fish : there is little sunken land : the wood on the Cape is generally pitch pine : there are few or no stones below Barnstable : the cellars are walled with brick, in a circular form, to prevent the loose sand from caving in : the wells are secured in the same manner, and they are obliged to keep them covered to prevent the sand from blowing in and spoiling the water. Formerly, the inhabitants took many whales round the Capes, chiefly in Massachusetts Bay ; but that business is almost at an end. The manner of taking black fish is somewhat singular : they are a fish of the whale kind, of about five tons weight, and produce oil in the same manner as a whale. When a shoal of them is discovered, which sometimes consists of several hundreds, the inhabitants put off in boats, get without them, and drive them like so many cattle on to the shore and flats, where they are left by the tide and fall an easy prey. The shore of the Cape is, in many places, covered with the huge bones of these fish and of whales, which remain unconsumed for many years. Many persons conjecture, that the Cape is gradually wearing away, and that it will finally fall a sacrifice to the ravages of the winds and the seas, and many circumstances favour such an opinion. At Province Town harbour stumps of trees are seen, which the sea now covers in common tides. When the English first settled upon the Cape, there was an island off Chatham, at three leagues distance, called *Webb's Island*, containing twenty acres, covered with red cedar or savin : the inhabitants of Nantucket used to carry wood from it. This island has been wholly worn away for almost a century. A large rock that was upon the island, and which settled as the earth washed away, now marks the place ; it rises as much above the bottom of the sea, as it used to rise above the surface of the ground : the water is six fathoms deep on this spot : and in many places on the Cape the sea appears to be encroaching on the land.

The Cape is so exposed to winds in every direction, that fruit trees do not thrive : there are few orchards of any consequence below Barnstable : there is not a cyder mill in the county. In many places, their forest trees have more the appearance of a prim hedge than of timber.

The Cape is an healthy situation, except for those constitutions which are too delicate for the piercing winds that come from the sea.

The inhabitants in general live as long as in the other parts of the northern States.

The winds, in every direction, come from the sea ; and invalids, by visiting the Cape, sometimes experience the same benefit as from going to sea.*

The principal bays on the coast of Massachusetts are, Ipswich, Boston, Plymouth, Cape Cod or Barnstable, and Buzzard's Bays. Many islands are scattered along the coast,

* See Massachusetts Magazine for March, 1791.

coast, the most noted of which are Plumb Island, which is about nine miles in length, extending from Merrimack river on the north, to the entrance of Ipswich river on the south, and is separated from the main land by a narrow sound, called Plumb Island river, fordable in several places at low water. It consists principally of sand, blown into curious heaps, and crowned with bushes bearing the beach plumb. There is, however, a valuable property of salt marsh, and at the south end of the island are two or three good farms: on the north end are the light-houses before-mentioned: on the sea shore of this island, and on Salisbury beach, the Marine Society, and other Gentlemen of Newbury Port, have humanely erected several small houses, furnished with fuel and other conveniencies for the relief of mariners who may be shipwrecked on this coast.

Nantucket Island lies south of Cape Cod: it contains, according to Douglas, 23,000 acres, including the beach. No mention is made of the discovery and settlement of this island, under its present name, by any of our historians. It is more than probable that this is the island which is usually called Nautican by ancient voyagers. As the island is low and sandy it is calculated only for those people who are willing to depend almost entirely on the watery element for subsistence. The island of itself constitutes one county by the name of Nantucket. It has but one town, called Sherburne, containing 4620 inhabitants, and sends one representative to the General Assembly.

The inhabitants formerly carried on the most considerable whale fishery on the coast, but the war almost ruined this business. They have since, however, revived it again, and pursue the whales, even into the Great Pacific Ocean. There is not a single tree on the island of natural growth; they have a place called the Woods, but it has been destitute of trees for these 60 years past. The island was formerly well wooded. The people, especially the females, are fondly attached to the island, and few wish to migrate to a more desirable situation.

The inhabitants of this island are principally Quakers; there is one society of Congregationalists. Forty years ago there were three congregations of Indians, each of which had a house for worship and a teacher: their last Indian pastor died 20 years since, and was a worthy, respectable character.

Martha's Vineyard, which lies a little to the westward of Nantucket, is about twenty-one miles in length and four in breadth: it contains three societies of Congregationalists at Edgarton, Tisbury, and Chilmark, two of Baptists, without ministers, and three congregations of Indians, one of which is supplied by an ordained Indian minister, and to the others, the Rev. Mr. Mayhew preaches in rotation, and superintends the whole. This, and the neighbouring island, constitute Duke's county, containing 3265 inhabitants, between 400 and 500 of which are Indians and Mulattoes, subsisting by agriculture and fishing.

Edgarton, which includes the fertile island of Chabaquidick, three miles long and one and a half broad, is the shire town. This little island joins to the harbour and renders it very secure. Gayhead, the westernmost part of the island, containing about 2400 acres, is very good tillage land, and is wholly occupied by Indians, but not well cultivated. One-third of this tract is the property of the English society for propagating the gospel in New England. The principal productions of the island are corn, rye, and oats. They raise sheep and cattle in considerable numbers. There are four mill streams in Tisbury. The inhabitants of this county send three representatives, and, in conjunction with Nantucket, one senator to the General Court.

The other islands of consideration are in Massachusetts Bay, which is agreeably diver-

diversified by about forty of various sizes : seven of them only are within the jurisdiction of the town of Boston, and taxed with it. Castle Island is about three miles from Boston, and contains about 18 acres of land. The buildings are, the Governor's house, a magazine, gaol, barracks, and workshops. In June, 1792, there were confined on this island 77 convicts, who are employed in the manufacture of nails, and guarded by a company of between 60 and 70 soldiers. The fort on this island commands the entrance of the harbour : here are mounted 50 pieces of cannon, and 44 others lie dismounted.

LIGHT HOUSES.] Within this State are the following light-houses : on Plum Island, near Newbury, are two, which we have already mentioned : on Thatcher's Island, off Cape Ann, two lights of equal height ; another stands on a rock on the north side of the entrance of Boston harbour, with one single light : on the north point of Plymouth harbour are two lights : on a point at the entrance of the harbour on the island of Nantucket, is one with a single light ; this light may be seen as far as Nantucket shoals extend ; the island being low, the light appears over it.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] See New England. By an admeasurement made by the barometer at Princetown, in this State, about 45 miles N. W. from Boston, and at Cambridge, in 1777, it appears that Princetown is 1332 feet higher than the level of the sea. The top of Wachusit mountain in Princetown was found to be 2989 feet above the level of the sea. A hill of this height, in a clear horizon, may be seen 67 miles.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] In Massachusetts are to be found all the varieties of soil, from very good to very bad, capable of yielding all the different productions common to the climate, such as Indian corn, rye, wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, hops, potatoes, field beans and peas—apples, pears, peaches, plums, cherries, &c. It has been observed, that the effects of the east winds extend farther inland than formerly, and injure the tender fruits, particularly the peach, and even the more hardy apple. The average produce of the good lands, well cultivated, has been estimated as follows : 40 bushels of corn on an acre—30 of barley—20 of wheat—30 of rye—100 of potatoes. The staple commodities of this State are fish, beef, and lumber.

COMMERCE.] The following abstract of goods, wares, and merchandize, exported from this State, from the first of October 1790, to the 31st of September 1791, will give the reader the best idea of their articles of export, and the quantity of each.

EXPORTS from MASSACHUSETTS, from October 1, 1790, to September 31, 1791.

Ash, Pot	tons	783.20	Coffee	do.	68,044
---, Pearl		1,159.50	Cocoa	do.	2,804
Apples	bbls.	1,131	Chocolate	boxes	331
Bricks	num.	330,250	Candles---Myrtle	do.	348
Smiths' Bellows	do.	2	Wax	do.	169
Boats	do.	75	Tallow	do.	1,106
Beer, Ale, and Porter,	gal.	15,532	Cables and Cordage	tons	32
Boots	pairs	339	-----	cwt.	18
Brimstone	lbs.	3,280	-----	coils	16
Blacking or Lampblack,	kegs	158	Copper---Ore	cwt.	20
Cider	bbls.	292	Manufactured	do.	1,480
-----	doz.	310	Coals	bush.	1,548
Chalk	tons	10	Cranberries	do.	688
Cotton	lbs.	13,371	Canes and Walking-sticks		96
					Cards

EXPORTS from MASSACHUSETTS continued.

Cards, cotton & wool	doz.	25	Iron-wrought---Axes	num.	662
Coaches, Chaises, Phaetons		16	Scythes	do.	48
Carts and Waggon		4	Locks and Bolts	do.	2,000
Duck, American	bolts	288	Shovels	do.	247
Drugs---Glauber Salts	lbs.	1,220	Skimmers & Ladles	pr.	15
Sassafras Root	tons	17	Anchors	num.	66
Earthen ware--Yell. or Queen's,	crates	92	Muskets	do.	60
Stone	doz.	25	Cutlasses	do.	72
Flaxseed	hhds.	6,056	Knives and Forks	do.	240
Flax	lbs.	2,700	Chests of Carpenter's Tools		4
Feathers	do.	100	Iron-cast--Pots, Kettles, &c.	do.	702
Flints	num.	40,000	Cannon	do.	25
Frames of---Boats	do.	10	Shot for Cannon	do.	1,000
Houses	do.	180	Iron the ton---Pig	tons	173½
Windows & Doors	do.	30	Bar	do.	36.18
Household Furniture--			Nail Rods	do.	1
Tables	do.	37	Hoops	do.	1
Desks		23	Indigo	lbs.	1,238
Bureaus		16	Leather, tann'd & dress'd	do.	1,240
Sophas		5	-----	fides	19
Chests		705	Lime	busf.	456
Windfor & Rush Chairs		54	Shot	lbs.	2,553
Fisheries---Fish dried	ewt.	326,560	Live Stock---		
Ditto pickled	bbls.	20,177	Horned Cattle	num.	652
Oil Whale	gal.	270,810	Horses	do.	324
Oil Spermaceti	do.	70,266	Sheep	do.	5,140
Sperma. Candles	boxes	2,927	Hogs	do.	619
Whalebone	lbs.	85,161	Poultry	doz.	999
Genfang	lbs.	3,096	Merchandize foreign packages		179
Grindstones	num.	104	Molasses	gal.	11,421
Glass---Ware	crates	21	Millstones	num.	
Window	boxes	13	Mustard	lbs.	780
Groceries---Cassia & Cinnam.	lbs.	1,178	Madder	do.	1,034
Pimento	do.	5,551	Nails	do.	20,000
Pepper	do.	92	Nankens	num. of pieces	3,594
Brown Sugar	do.	3,904	Nuts	busf.	692
Raisins	do.	100	Naval Stores---Pitch	bbls.	552
Grain and Pulse---			Tar	do.	2,824
Wheat	busf.	52	Turpentine	do.	4,266
Rye	do.	2,350	Rosin	do.	23
Barley	do.	32	Oil, Linseed	gal.	90
Indian Corn	do.	69,064	Powder, Gun	lbs.	13,814
Oats	do.	447	-----, Hair	do.	166
Peas and Beans	do.	3,746	Pomatum	do.	45
Horns and Horntips	num.	71,281	Paints	do.	840
Hats	do.	370	Provisions---Rice	tierces	810
Hops	lbs.	650	Flour	lbs.	21,236
Hay	tons	63	Ship Stuff	do.	214

EXPORTS

MASSACHUSETTS.

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EXPORTS from MASSACHUSETTS continued.

<i>Provisions</i> ---Indian Meal	blbs.	7,000
Rye ditto	do.	252
Bread	do.	2,285
Beef	do.	30,499
Pork	do.	3,174
Crackers	kegs	1,812
Hams and Bacon	lbs.	36,946
Venison & Mutton Hams	do.	200
Cheese	do.	23,155
Lard	do.	4,860
Butter	firkin	3,873
Sausages	blbs.	250
Fresh Beef	do.	92,269
----- Pork	do.	29,334
Carcases of Mutton	num.	561
Neats Tongues	lbs.	154
Oysters, Pickled	kegs	214
Potatoes	bush.	3,808
Onions	do.	5,497
<i>Spirits</i> ---Rum, American	gal.	298,357
-----, West India	do.	2,734
Brandy	do.	188
Gin	cases	2,113
Cordials	do.	69
<i>Saddlery</i> ---Saddles & Bridles	num.	70
Carriage Harness	sets	14
Shoes	pairs	3,400
Soap	boxes	479
Snuff	lbs.	1,939
Steel	bundles	27
Spruce, Essence of	cases	31
Salt	bush.	3,647
Seeds, Hay	lbs.	60
<i>Skins and Furs</i> ---		
Morocco	num.	132
Calf in Hair	do.	290
Deer and Moose	do.	962
Bears, &c.	do.	24
Deer & other Skins unknown,		
hhd. casks, and packages		56
Tobacco	hhd.	1,190
Ditto, manufactured	lbs.	71,108
Tallow	do.	275,641
Twine	cwt.	1,900
Tow Cloth	yards	4,548

Toys for Children	doz.	12½
Tin manufactured	doz.	14
<i>Teas</i> ---Bohea	chests	6½
Souchong	do.	108½
Green	do.	178
Hyson	do.	628½
Vinegar	gal.	2,098
<i>Wines</i> ---Madeira	do.	4,622
Other Wines	do.	3,940
Bottled	doz.	6
Wax Bees	lbs.	10,254
Myrtle	do.	1,946
Whips	num.	144
<i>Wood</i> ---Stav. & Head.	num.	5,456,041
Shingles	do.	12,325,600
Shooks & Casks	do.	29,895
Laths	do.	15,500
Hoops & Hop-poles	do.	511,764
Masts		219
Bowspits		42
Booms		74
Spars		3,243
Handspikes		13,126
Pumps		23
Boxes and Brakes		56
Blocks		5,162
Oars and Rafter		33,920
Trunnels		35,905
Cedar and Oak Knees		1,051
Carvings		13
Anchor Stocks		375
Oak Boards & Planks, feet		568,565
Pine Boards & Planks	do.	21,136,101
Other ditto	do.	3,448,369
Scantling		516,681
Oak and Pine Timber		68,238
Oak & Pine ditto	tons	13,366
Oak Pine	pieces	6,436
Oak, Pine, & Hickory	cords	494
Oak Bark	do.	13
Oak ditto ground	hhd.	6
Mast Hoops	doz.	110
Yokes for Oxen		96

Besides a variety of smaller articles.

Value of Goods, Wares, and Merchandise, exported from Massachusetts in the above-mentioned year,

Dolls. Cr.
2,445,975. 53
It

It must be noted, that the foregoing abstract comprehends those articles only which were exported to foreign ports; the domestic trade is not taken into the account. Shoes, cards, hats, saddlery, and various other manufactures, and several articles of the produce of the country, to a great amount, were the same year exported to the southern States.

This State owns more than three times as many tons of shipping as any other of the States, and more than one third part of the whole that belongs to the United States.* Upwards of 29,000 tons are employed in carrying on the fisheries; 46,000 in the coasting business, and 96,564 in trading with almost all parts of the world. Pot and pearl ash, flaves, flax-seed, bees-wax, &c. are carried chiefly to Great Britain, in remittance for their manufactures; masts and provisions to the East Indies; fish, oil, beef, pork, lumber, candles, &c. are carried to the West Indies, for their produce, and the two first articles, fish and oil, to France, Spain, and Portugal; roots, vegetables, fruits, and small meats, to Nova Scotia and New Brunswick; hats, saddlery, cabinet-work, men's and women's shoes, nails, tow-cloth, barley, hops, butter, cheese, &c. to the southern States. The *Negro* trade was prohibited by law in 1778, and there is not a single *slave* belonging to the Commonwealth.

[MANUFACTURES.] If we except printing types, stone wares, pitch, tar and turpentine, and wine, most if not all the other articles enumerated in pages 204 and 205, are manufactured in a greater or less degree in this State. There is a duck manufactory at Boston, from which 1700 bolts, of 40 yards each, said to be the best duck ever before seen in America, have been sold in one year. Manufactories of this kind have been begun in Salem, Haverhill, and Springfield, and are said to be in a promising way. Manufactories of cotton goods have been established at Beverley and Worcester; and much credit is due to the patriotic gentlemen who began them; although by their persevering exertions, they have not been able to surmount the various obstacles in the way of success. At Taunton, Bridgewater, Middleborough, and some other places, nails have been made in such quantities as to prevent, in a great measure, the importation of them from Great Britain. In this State there are thirteen paper mills, five on Neponset river, five on Charles river, one at Andover, on Shawheen river, one at Springfield, and the other at Sutton, in Worcester county. Ten of these mills have two vats each, and when in action, employ ten men, and as many girls and boys, and produce at the rate of 60,000 reams of writing, printing, and wrapping paper, annually. It is estimated that *twenty thousand pounds* worth of paper is yearly made by these mills; and the quantity is annually and rapidly increasing.

The principal card manufactory is in Boston, and belongs to Mr. Giles Richards, and Co. in which are made yearly about 7000 dozen of cotton and wool cards, of the various kinds or numbers, which consume about a hundred casks of wire, averaged at 30l. a cask, and about 20,000 tanned calf, sheep, and lamb skins, at 2s. each. The sticking of these cards employs not less than 1000 people, chiefly children, and about sixty men are fully occupied in manufacturing card boards, card tacks, and finishing the cards. It is estimated that about 2000 dozen cards are made at the other manufactories in different parts of the State.

The seat of the *shoe manufacture* is at Lynn, eight miles to the northward of Boston, in the County of Essex. It is not easy to fix the number of shoes annually made by the industrious inhabitants of this town, but it has been estimated by those most competent to form an accurate judgement, that, besides the home consumption, and the large numbers sent every week to Boston and other places, several hundred thousand

* See page 200.

pair are shipped to the different parts of the United States. One man, Mr. B. Johnson, from his own workshop, in the course of seven months, shipped 20,600 pair of shoes, valued at 4,979l. 6s. exclusive of large numbers sold in the vicinity.

Silk and thread lace, of an elegant texture, are manufactured by women and children, in large quantities, in the town of Ipswich, in Essex County, and sold for use and exportation in Boston, and other mercantile towns. This manufacture, if properly regulated and encouraged, might be productive of great and extensive advantages. In the year 1790, no less than 41,979 yards were made in this town; and the quantity, it is supposed, has since been considerably increased.

A wire manufactory has lately been erected at a considerable expence in Dedham, in Suffolk County, for the purpose of drawing wire for the use of the fish-hook and card manufacturers in Boston. The essays which have already been made promise success.

There are several snuff, oil, chocolate, and powder mills in different parts of the State; and a number of iron works and slitting mills, besides other mills, in common use, in great abundance, for sawing lumber, grinding grain, and fulling cloth.

There are 62 distilleries in this State, employed in distilling from foreign materials. In these distilleries are 158 stills, which together contain 102,173 gallons. Besides these, there are twelve country stills employed in distilling domestic materials; but these are small, and the most of them very lately erected, and some have never yet been worked. One million nine hundred thousand gallons have been distilled in one year, which, at a duty of eleven cents a gallon, yields a revenue to the government of 209,000 dollars.

A brick pyramidical glass-house was erected in Boston by a company of gentlemen in 1789; but for want of workmen skilled in the business, their works were not put in operation effectually till November 1792; and although several of the first essays or meltings proved unsuccessful, later essays give the fullest ground to believe that this very important manufacture may be prosecuted to the advantage of the proprietors, as well as to the great benefit of the public. From the specimens of glass exhibited, it appears to be of the best quality for clearness and goodness; and as there is an abundance of the material for this manufacture at command, there can be little doubt of its being carried to such an extent, in the course of a few years, as to preclude foreign importations, which will make a vast saving to our country. Every friend to his country must wish that the patriotic company which have established this manufacture, might meet with such success as to have their expenses reimbursed, which have already exceeded the sum of 16,000 dollars.

BRIDGES AND CANALS.] The bridges that merit notice in this State are the following, viz. Charles river bridge, built in 1786-7, 1503 feet long, and connecting Boston and Charlestown. It is built on 75 piers, with a convenient draw in the middle, for the passage of vessels. Each pier is composed of seven sticks of oak timber, united by a cap piece, strong braces and girts, and afterwards driven into the bed of the river, and firmly secured by a single pile on each side, driven obliquely to a solid bottom. The piers are connected to each other by large strong pieces, which are covered with four inch plank. The bridge is 43 feet in width, and on each side is accommodated with a passage six feet wide, railed in for the safety of people on foot. The bridge has a gradual rise from each end, so as to be two feet higher in the middle than at the extremities. Forty elegant lamps are erected, at a suitable distance from each other, to illuminate it when necessary. There are four strong stone wharves connected with three piers each, sunk in various parts of the river. The machinery of the draw is

simple, and requires but two men to raise it. At the highest tides the water rises twelve or fourteen feet; the floor of the bridge is then about four feet above the water. The depth of the water in the channel at low tide is twenty-seven feet. This bridge was completed in thirteen months; and while it exhibits the greatest effect of private enterprize of this kind in the United States, it being the first bridge of considerable magnitude that has been erected, presents a most pleasing proof, how certainly objects of magnitude may be attained by spirited exertions.

The success which attended this experiment led others to engage in similar works of enterprize. Malden bridge across Mystic river, connecting Charlestown with Malden, was begun in April 1787, and was opened for passengers the September following. This bridge, including the abutments, is 2420 feet long, and 32 feet wide, it has a draw 30 feet wide. The deepest water at full tide is 23 feet. The expense of this bridge was estimated at 5300l.

Essex bridge, upwards of 1500 feet in length, with a well-contrived draw, was erected in 1789, and connects Salem with Beverly. The expense of this bridge is said not to have exceeded one third part of that of Charles river bridge, yet it is esteemed quite equal in strength, and is thought by travellers to be superior in point of beauty.

In Rowley, on the post road between Boston and Newburyport, is a bridge across Parker's river 870 feet long, and 26 feet wide, consisting of nine solid piers and eight wooden arches. This bridge was built in the year 1758.

A bridge over Merrimack river, in the county of Essex, about two miles above Newburyport, is nearly completed. At the place where the bridge is erected, an island divides the river into two branches. An arch of 160 feet diameter and 40 feet above the level of high water, connects this island with the main on one side; the channel on the other side is wider, but the center arch is but 140 feet diameter. Greater ingenuity is discovered in the construction of this bridge, than in any that have hitherto been built; and it is one among the vast number of stupendous and useful works which owe their origin to that confidence between man and man, which has been created or restored by the measures of the general government.

Another ingeniously constructed bridge has lately been completed over this river at Pautucket Falls, between Chelmsford and Dracut, in the county of Middlesex. These bridges are all supported by a toll.

Several other bridges are contemplated in different parts of the State, and one is actually begun, which, when completed, will connect the west part of Boston with Cambridge, over Charles river, and will be more than twice as long, and attended with nearly twice the expense of any other that has yet been built in this or in any of the United States.

The legislature, in February 1792, were petitioned by a company for liberty to build a bridge over Connecticut river, at Montague; which was granted.

The only canals of importance which have been contemplated in this commonwealth, are one between Barnstable and Buzzard's Bay, and those necessary to render Connecticut river navigable, both of which we have mentioned, and one which shall open a communication between the town of Boston and some part of Connecticut river, for which purpose General Knox and others were incorporated in 1792, by the name of "The Proprietors of the Massachusetts Canal."

CURIOSITIES.] In the north part of the township of Adams, in Berkshire county, not half a mile from Stamford, in Vermont, is a natural curiosity which merits a description. A pretty mill stream, called Hudson's Brook, which rises in Vermont, and
falls

falls into the north branch of Hoosuck river, has, for thirty or forty rods, formed a very deep channel through a quarry of white marble. The hill, gradually descending towards the south, terminates in a steep precipice, down which probably the water once tumbled. But finding in some places a natural chasm in the rocks, and in others wearing them away, as is evident from their appearance, it has formed a channel which in some places is more than sixty feet deep. Over this channel, where deepest, some of the rocks remain, and form a natural bridge. From the top of this bridge to the water it is sixty-two feet; its length is about twelve or fifteen, and its breadth about ten. Partly under this bridge, and about ten or twelve feet below it, is another, which is wider but not so long; for at the east end they form one body of rock, twelve or fourteen feet thick, and under this the water flows. It is evident, from the appearance of the rocks, that the water in some places formerly flowed forty or fifty feet above its present bed. Many cavities, of different figures and dimensions, but generally circular, are worn out in the rocks. One of these, in the solid rock, is about four feet in diameter, and four or five feet deep; the rock is on one side worn through at the bottom. A little above the bridge, on the west side of the chasm, is a cave or little room, which has a convenient entrance at the north, and a passage out at the east. From the west side of this cave a chasm extends into the hill, but soon becomes too narrow to pass. The rocks here, which are mostly white, though in some places clouded or streaked with other colours, appear to be of that species of coarse white marble which is common at Lanesborough, and in other towns in Berkshire county.

In the town of Wrentham, about two miles S. E. of the meeting house, is a curious cavern called *Wampom's Rock*, from an Indian family of that name who resided in it for a number of years. It is situated on the south side of a hill, and is surrounded by a number of broken rocks. It is nearly square, each side measuring about nine feet. The height is about eight feet in front, but from the center it lessens to about four feet. At present it serves only as a shelter for cattle and sheep, as do one or two other rocks or caves in the town, formerly inhabited by Indians.

Under this article we mention the falls of Powow river, which rises in New Hampshire, and falls into the Merrimack between Salisbury and Amesbury, in the county of Essex. At these falls, the descent of the water, in the distance of fifty rods, is 100 feet, and in its passage carries one bloomery, five saw mills, seven grist mills, two linseed-oil mills, one fulling mill, and one snuff mill, besides several wheels, auxiliary to different labours. The rapid fall of the water—the dams at very short distances crossing the river—the various wheels and mills arising almost immediately one over another—and the very irregular and grotesque situation of the houses and other buildings on the adjoining grounds, gives this place a romantic appearance, and afford in the whole; one of the most singular views to be found in this country.

Lynn beach may be reckoned a curiosity. It is one mile in length, and connects the peninsula, called *Nabant*, with the main land. This is a place of much resort for parties of pleasure from Boston, Charlestown, Salem, and Marblehead, in the summer season. The beach is used as a race ground, for which it is well calculated, being level, smooth, and hard.

MINERALS, FOSSILS; AND MINERAL SPRINGS.] Iron ore in immense quantities is found in various parts of this State, particularly in the old colony of Plymouth, in the towns of Middleborough, Bridgewater, Taunton, Attleborough, Stoughton, and the towns in that neighbourhood, which has in consequence become the seat of the iron manufactures. The slitting mills in this district, it is said, annually slit 600 tons of iron; and one company has lately been formed, which will annually manufacture into
nails.

nails, of a quality equal to those imported, 500 tons of iron. The number of spikes and nails made in this State is supposed now to be twice as large as that made in 1788, and is still increasing, and will probably soon preclude all foreign importations, and from the abundance of the raw material may become an article of export.

Copper ore is found at Leverett, in the county of Hampshire, and at Attleborough, in the county of Bristol. Several mines of black lead have been discovered in Brimfield, in Hampshire county; and white pipe clay, and yellow and red ochre, at Martha's Vineyard. Allum slate, or stone, has been found in some parts; and also ruddle or a red earth, which has been used as a ground colour for priming, instead of Spanish brown. In a quarry of lime-stone, in the parish of Byfield, in the county of Essex, is found the *Asbestos*, or incombustible cotton, as it has been called. Marble has been found in the same vicinity, and it is conjectured that there are considerable beds of it. The specimens of it already exhibited have been beautifully variegated in colour, and admit an admirable polish. A marble quarry at Laneshorough affords very good marble.

Several mineral springs have been found in different parts of the State, particularly at Lynn, Wrentham, Menotomy Parish in Cambridge, &c. but none are celebrated as places of resort for invalids.

LITERARY, HUMANE, and other SOCIETIES.] These institutions in Massachusetts exhibit a fair trait in the character of the inhabitants. Among the first literary institutions in this State is the AMERICAN ACADEMY OF ARTS AND SCIENCES, incorporated May 4th, 1780. It is declared in the act, that the end and design of the institution is to promote and encourage the knowledge of the antiquities of America, and of the natural history of the country, and to determine the uses to which the various natural productions of the country may be applied; also to promote and encourage medical discoveries, mathematical disquisitions, philosophical inquiries and experiments; astronomical, meteorological, and geographical observations; improvements in agriculture, arts, manufacture, commerce, and the cultivation of every science that may tend to advance a free, independent, and virtuous people. There are never to be more than two hundred members, nor less than forty. This society has four stated annual meetings.

The MASSACHUSETTS CHARITABLE SOCIETY, incorporated December 16th, 1779, is intended for the mutual aid of themselves and families, who may be distressed by any of the adverse accidents of life, and for the comforting and relieving of widows and orphans of their deceased members. The members of this society meet annually, and are not to exceed an hundred in number.

The BOSTON EPISCOPAL CHARITABLE SOCIETY, first instituted in 1724, and incorporated February 12, 1784, has for its object, charity to such as are of the episcopal church, and to such others as the society shall think fit; but more especially the relief of those who are members of, and benefactors to, the society, and afterwards become suitable objects of its charity. The members of this society meet annually, and are not to exceed one hundred in number.

The MASSACHUSETTS MEDICAL SOCIETY was incorporated November 1st, 1781. The design of this institution is, to promote medical and surgical knowledge, inquiries into the animal economy, and the properties and effects of medicine, by encouraging a free intercourse with the gentlemen of the faculty throughout the United States of America, and a friendly correspondence with the eminent in those professions throughout the world. The number of Fellows who are inhabitants of the State, cannot exceed seventy. The present number is sixty one, and thirteen have died since its establishment. The powers vested in the society are—To choose their officers, and enact any laws for
their

their own government which is not repugnant to the laws of the Commonwealth—To use a common seal—To sue and be sued—To hold real estate of the annual income of £200, and personal estate of the annual income of £600—To elect, suspend, expel or disfranchise any fellows of the society—To describe and point out, from time to time, such a mode of medical instruction or education as they shall judge requisite for candidates for the practice of physic and surgery—To examine all candidates who shall offer themselves for examination, respecting their skill in the profession—And to give letters testimonial of their approbation to all such as may be duly qualified to practise.*

Committees are appointed in each county to receive communications from, and to correspond with their medical brethren who are not fellows of the society; and this has led to the formation of several medical associations, whose views are to aid the laudable designs of this important institution.

Further to evidence their humanity and benevolence, a number of the medical and other gentlemen, in the town of Boston, in 1785, formed a society, by the name of the HUMANE SOCIETY, for the purpose of recovering persons apparently dead, from drowning, suffocation, strangling, and other accidents. This society, which was incorporated in 1791, have erected seven huts, furnished with wood, straw, cabbins, tinder boxes, blankets, &c. two on Lovell's Island, one on Calf Island in Boston harbour, two on Nantasket beach, and another on Scituate beach near Marshfield, for the comfort of shipwrecked seamen. Huts of the same kind are erected on Plum Island, near Newbury, by the marine society of that place, already mentioned; and there are also some contiguous to Hampton and Salisbury Beach.

At their semi-annual meetings, a public discourse is delivered by some person appointed by the trustees for that purpose, on some medical subject connected with the principal object of the society; and as a stimulus to investigation, and a reward of merit, a medal is adjudged annually by the president and trustees, to the person who exhibits the most approved dissertation.

THE SOCIETY FOR PROPAGATING THE GOSPEL among the Indians and others in North America, was incorporated November 19, 1787. They are enabled to receive subscriptions of charitably disposed persons, and may take any personal estate in succession. All donations to the society, either by subscriptions, legacy or otherwise, excepting such as may be differently appropriated by the donors, to make a part of, or be put into the capital stock of the society, which is to be put out on interest on good security, or otherwise improved to the best advantage, and the income and profits are to be applied to the purposes aforesaid, in such manner as the society shall judge most conducive to answer the design of their institution. For several years past missionaries have been appointed and supported by the society to visit the eastern parts of the District of Maine, where the people are generally destitute of the means of religious instruction, and to spend the summer months with them. The success of these missions have been highly satisfactory to the society. Several thousand books of different kinds, suited to the state of the people, have been purchased by the society's funds, and distributed among them and the Oneida Indians.

A part of this society are a board of commissioners from the Scot's society for promoting Christian knowledge among the Indians in America.

THE MASSACHUSETTS SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING AGRICULTURE was incorporated in 1792, in consequence of which the agricultural committee of the Academy is dissolved.

* The qualifications required of candidates for examination, and the books recommended by the society, are published in Fleet's Massachusetts Register, A. D. 1791.

At a late meeting of this society, in Boston, a very considerable sum of money was subscribed, for establishing a fund to defray the expense of premiums and bounties, which may be voted by the society.

A society was established in this State in 1791, called the HISTORICAL SOCIETY, the professed design of which is to collect, preserve, and communicate materials for a complete history of this country from the beginning of its settlement.

Next to Pennsylvania, this State has the greatest number of societies for the promotion of useful knowledge and human happiness; and as they are founded on the broad basis of *benevolence*, *patriotism*, and *charity*, they cannot fail to prosper. These institutions, which are fast increasing in almost every State in the Union, are so many evidences of the advanced and advancing state of civilization and improvement in this country, and of the excellence of our national government. They prove likewise that a free republican government, like ours, is the most happily calculated to promote a general diffusion of useful knowledge, and the most favourable to the benevolent and humane feelings of the human heart.

[LITERATURE, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] According to the laws of this commonwealth, every town having fifty householders or upwards, is to be provided with one or more school-masters to teach children and youth to read and write, and instruct them in the English language, arithmetic, orthography, and decent behaviour; and where any town has two hundred families, there is also to be a grammar school set up therein, and some discreet person, well instructed in the Latin, Greek and English languages, procured to keep the same, and be suitably paid by the inhabitants. The penalty for neglect of schools in towns of fifty families is 10l. those of one hundred families 20l.—of one hundred and fifty, 30l.

These laws respecting schools are not so well regarded in many parts of the State, as the wise purposes which they were intended to answer, and the happiness of the people require.

In Boston there are seven public schools, supported wholly at the expense of the town, and in which the children of every class of citizens freely associate. In the Latin grammar school the rudiments of the Latin and Greek languages are taught, and boys qualified for the universities; into this school none are admitted till ten years of age, having been previously well instructed in English grammar. In the three English grammar schools, the children of both sexes, from seven to fourteen years of age, are instructed in spelling, accenting and reading the English language both prose and verse, with propriety, also in English grammar and composition, together with the rudiments of geography; in the other three the same children are taught writing and arithmetic. These schools are attended alternately, and each of them is furnished with an usher or assistant. The masters of these schools have each a salary of 666⅔ dollars per annum, payable quarterly.

They are all under the immediate care of a committee of twenty-one gentlemen, for the time being, chosen annually, whose duty it is "to visit the schools at least once in three months, to examine the scholars in the various branches in which they are taught, to devise the best methods for the instruction and government of the schools, to give such advice to the masters as they shall think expedient, and by all proper methods to excite in children a laudable ambition to excel in a virtuous, amiable deportment, and in every branch of useful knowledge." At the annual visitation in July 1792, there were present 470 girls and 720 boys. Besides these there are several private schools, for instruction in the English, Latin, and French languages—in writing, arithmetic, and the higher branches of the mathematics—and also in music and dancing. Perhaps there

there is not a town in the world, the youth of which more fully enjoy the benefits of school education, than Boston. And when we consider how inseparably the happiness and prosperity of our country, and the existence of our present happy government, are connected with the education of children, too much credit cannot be given to the enlightened citizens of this town, for the attention they have paid to this important business, and the worthy example they have exhibited for the imitation of others.

Next in importance to the grammar schools are the Academies, in which, as well as in the grammar schools, young gentlemen are fitted for admission to the university.

DUMMER ACADEMY, at Newbury, was founded as early as 1756, by means of a liberal donation from the Honourable William Dummer, formerly Lieutenant-governor, and a worthy man, whose name it has ever since retained. It was opened in 1763, and incorporated by an act of the general court, in 1782. By the act the number of trustees is not to exceed fifteen, who are to manage the funds for the support of the instructors. This academy is at present in a flourishing state.

PHILLIPS ACADEMY, in Andover, was founded and handsomely endowed April 21, 1778, by the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Esq. of Andover, in the county of Essex, and commonwealth of Massachusetts, lately deceased, and his brother the Honourable John Phillips, L. L. D. of Exeter, in the State of New Hampshire. It was incorporated October 4, 1780. It is under the direction of thirteen trustees of respectable characters, and the immediate care of a principal, (who is one of the trustees *ex officio*) an assistant, and a writing master. They are accommodated with a large and elegant building, erected at the expense of the founders, and their brother, the Honourable William Phillips, Esq. of Boston. It is situated on a delightful eminence, near the mansion house of the Honourable Samuel Phillips, Esq. its distinguished patron, and son of the deceased founder—is encompassed with a salubrious air, and commands an extensive prospect. The lower story contains a large school-room, with ample accommodations for an hundred students, and two other apartments for a library, and other purposes: the upper story consists of a spacious hall, sixty-four feet in length, and thirty-three feet in breadth, designed for exhibitions and other public occasions.

The design of this foundation, according to its constitution, is, “The promotion of true piety and virtue, the instruction of youth in the English, Latin, and Greek languages; together with writing, arithmetic, practical geometry, music and oratory, logic and geography; and such other of the liberal arts and sciences, or languages, as opportunity and ability may hereafter admit, and the trustees shall direct.”

LEICESTER ACADEMY, in the township of Leicester, and county of Worcester, was incorporated in 1784. For the encouragement of this institution, Ebenezer Crafts and Jacob Davis, Esquires, generously gave a large and commodious mansion house, lands and appurtenances, in Leicester.

In Williamstown, in Berkshire county, is another Academy. Col. Ephraim Williams laid the foundation of it by a handsome donation in lands. In 1790, partly by lottery and partly by the liberal donation of gentlemen in the town, a brick edifice was erected, 82 feet by 42, and four stories high, containing twenty-four rooms for students, a large school room, a dining hall, and a room for public speaking. It has a preceptor, an usher, and a master of the English school. The number of students is at present between fifty and sixty, besides the scholars of the free school. The languages and sciences usually taught in the American colleges are taught here. Board, tuition, and other expenses of education are very low; and from its situation, and other circumstances, it is likely, in a short time, to become an institution of considerable utility and importance.

An Academy at Taunton was incorporated in 1792.

At Hingham is a well endowed school, which, in honour of its principal donor and founder, is called DERBY SCHOOL.

These Academies are designed to disseminate virtue and true piety, to promote the education of youth in the English, Latin, Greek, and French languages, in writing, arithmetic, oratory, geography, practical geometry, logic, philosophy, and such other of the liberal arts and sciences, or languages, as may be thought expedient.

HARVARD UNIVERSITY takes its date from the year 1638. Two years before, the general court gave four hundred pounds for the support of a public school at Newtown, which has since been called Cambridge. This year (1638) the Rev. Mr. John Harvard, a worthy minister residing in Charlestown, died, and left a donation of 779l. for the use of the forementioned public school. In honour to the memory of so liberal a benefactor, the general court, the same year, ordered that the school should take the name of HARVARD COLLEGE.

In 1642, the College was put upon a more respectable footing, and the governor, deputy governor, and magistrates, and the ministers of the six next adjacent towns, with the president, were erected into a corporation for the ordering and managing its concerns. It received its first charter in 1650.

Cambridge, in which the university is situated, is a pleasant village, four miles westward from Boston, containing a number of gentlemen's seats which are neat and well built. The university consists of four elegant brick edifices, handsomely enclosed. They stand on a beautiful green which spreads to the north-west, and exhibit a pleasing view.

The names of the several buildings are, Harvard Hall, Massachusetts Hall, Hollis Hall and Holden Chapel. Harvard Hall is divided into six apartments; one of which is appropriated for the library, one for the museum, two for the philosophical apparatus; one is used for a chapel, and the other for a dining hall. The library, in 1791, consisted of upwards of 13,000 volumes; and will be continually increasing from the interest of permanent funds, as well as from casual benefactions. The philosophical apparatus belonging to this university, cost between 1400l. and 1500l. lawful money, and is the most elegant and complete of any in America.

Agreeable to the present constitution of Massachusetts, his excellency the governor, lieutenant-governor, the council and senate, the president of the university, and the ministers of the congregational churches in the towns of Boston, Charlestown, Cambridge, Watertown, Roxbury, and Dorchester, are, *ex officiis*, overseers of the University.

The corporation is a distinct body, consisting of seven members, in whom is vested the property of the university.

Harvard university has a President, Emeritus Professor of Divinity—Hollisian Professor of Divinity—Hancock Professor of Hebrew and other Oriental languages—Hollis Professor of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy—Hersey Professor of Anatomy and Surgery—Hersey Professor of the theory and practice of Physic—Erving Professor of Chymistry and Materia Medica—four tutors, who teach the Greek and Latin languages, logic, metaphysics, and ethics, geography, and the elements of geometry, natural philosophy, astronomy, and history; and a preceptor of the French language.

This university, as to its library, philosophical apparatus and professorships, is at present the first literary institution on this continent. Since its first establishment, upwards of 3,300 students have received honorary degrees from its successive officers;

about one third of whom have been ordained to the work of the gospel ministry. It has generally from 130 to 160 students.

This university is liberally endowed, and is frequently receiving donations for the establishment of new professorships. Formerly there was an annual grant made by the legislature, to the president and professors, of from four to five hundred pounds, which for several years past has been discontinued.

BANKS.] There are four incorporated Banks in this Commonwealth, of which the Branch Bank in Boston, which is a part of the National Bank, is one. The Massachusetts Bank in Boston was incorporated in 1784. It was designed as a public benefit, and more particularly to accommodate the mercantile interest. Its present capital consists of 800 shares of 500 dollars each, making in all 400,000 dollars. It is kept open every day in the year, except public days. The annual meeting for the choice of nine directors is on the first Wednesday in January.

Essex Bank, at Salem, was incorporated 1792, and is under the management of a president and six directors.

Union Bank, in Boston, was also incorporated in 1792, and has a president and eleven directors. Its capital consists of 100,000 shares of eight dollars each, so that when the payment of the shares shall be completed, the whole stock will amount to 800,000 dollars.

CHIEF TOWNS.] BOSTON is the capital, not only of Massachusetts, but of New England, and lies in lat. $42^{\circ} 23' N$. It is built on a peninsula of an irregular form, at the bottom of Massachusetts Bay. The neck or isthmus which joins the peninsula to the continent, is at the south end of the town, and leads to Roxbury. The length of the town itself is not quite two miles; its breadth is various. At the entrance from Roxbury it is narrow. The greatest breadth is one mile and 139 yards. The buildings in the town cover about 1000 acres. It contains nearly 2000 dwelling houses and about 20,000 inhabitants.

In this town there are seventy-nine streets, thirty-eight lanes, and twenty-one alleys, exclusive of squares and courts; and about eighty wharfs and quays very convenient for vessels. The principal wharf extends 600 yards into the sea, and is covered on the north side with large and convenient stores. It far exceeds any other wharf in the United States.

In Boston are 17 houses for public worship; of which nine are for Congregationalists, three for Episcopalians, two for Baptists, one for the Friends, one for Universalists, and one for Roman Catholics.

The other public buildings are the state house, court house, gaol, Faneuil Hall, an alms house, a work house, a bridewell, and powder magazine. That building which was formerly the governor's house, is now occupied in its several apartments, by the council, the treasurer, and the secretary; the two latter hold their offices in it. Most of the public buildings are handsome, and some of them are elegant. The town is irregularly built, but, as it lies in a circular form around the harbour, it exhibits a very handsome view as you approach it from the sea. On the west side of the town is the mall, a very beautiful public walk, adorned with rows of trees, and in view of the common, which is always open to refreshing breezes. Beacon hill, on which a handsome monument, commemorative of some of the most important events of the late war, has lately been erected, overlooks the town from the west, and affords a fine variegated prospect.

The harbour of Boston is safe, and large enough to contain 500 ships at anchor, in a good depth of water; while the entrance is so narrow as scarcely to admit two ships abreast. It is diversified, as we have already observed, with 40 islands, which afford

rich pasturing, hay, and grain. About three miles from the town is the castle, which commands the entrance of the harbour.

The market in this town is supplied with an abundance of beef, pork, mutton, lamb, veal, and poultry, and of a quality equal to any in the world; and also with meal, butter, cheese, roots, vegetables, and fruits of various kinds, in great plenty. The fish market is also excellent, and not only furnishes the tables of the rich with some of the greatest dainties, but is also a singular blessing to the poor.

At an annual meeting in March, seven select men are chosen for the more immediate government of the town; at the same time are elected a town clerk, a town treasurer, 12 overseers of the poor, 12 firewards, 12 clerks of the market, 12 scavengers, and 12 constables, besides a number of other officers. Attempts have been made to change the government of the town from its present form to that of a city, but the proposed form not being consonant to the democratic spirit of the body of the people, it has been rejected.

Boston was settled as early as the year 1630, from Charlestown. The peninsula was called, by the natives, Shawmut; but the inhabitants of Charlestown, from the view they had of three hills, called it *Trimountain*. The new inhabitants, however, named it Boston, out of respect to the Rev. Mr. Cotton, formerly a minister of Boston, in England, who was expected to come over to New England. He was afterwards minister of the *first church*.

It has been computed, that during the siege in 1775, as many houses were destroyed in Boston by the British troops, as were burnt in Charlestown. Since the peace a spirit of repairs and improvement has diffused itself among the inhabitants. The streets of late have been lighted with lamps at the expense of the town; and some small beginnings have been made towards improving the streets by new paving them, which it is hoped will stimulate to like improvements through the town. The principal manufactures here are, rum, beer, paper hangings, of which 24,000 pieces are annually made, loaf sugar, cordage, cards, sail cloth, spermaceti and tallow candles, glass—there are thirty distilleries, two breweries, eight sugar houses, and eleven rope walks. A few years may render the metropolis of Massachusetts as famed for arts, manufactures, and commerce, as any city in the United States.

Salem, the second town for size in the Commonwealth, containing 928 houses and 7921 inhabitants, and except Plymouth, the oldest, was settled in 1628, by Governor Endicot, and was called by the Indians, Naumkeag. Here are a meeting of Quakers, an episcopal church and five congregational societies. The town is situated on a peninsula, formed by two small inlets of the sea, called North and South rivers. The former of these passes into Beverly Harbour, and has a draw-bridge across it, built many years ago at private expense.—At this place some part of the shipping of the town is fitted out; but the principal harbour and place for business is on the other side of the town, at South river, if that may properly be called a river, which depends on the flowing of the sea for the water it contains. So shoal is this harbour that vessels which draw more than ten or twelve feet of water, must be laden and unladen at a distance from the wharfs by the assistance of lighters. This inconvenience, notwithstanding, more navigation is owned, and more trade carried on in Salem than in any port in the Commonwealth, Boston excepted. The fishery, the trade to the West Indies, to Europe, to the coast of Africa; to the East Indies, and the freighting business from the southern States, are here all pursued with energy and spirit. The enterprize of the merchants of this place is equalled by nothing but their indefatigable industry and severe economy. This latter virtue forms a distinguishing feature in the character of the people of this town.

town. Some persons of rank, in former times, having carried it to an unbecoming length, gave a character to the people in general of a disgraceful parsimony. But, whether this reproach was ever justly applied in so extensive a measure or not, nothing can be more injurious than to continue it at the present time; for it may justly be said of the inhabitants of Salem at this day, that, with a laudable attention to the acquisition of property, they exhibit a public spirit and hospitality, alike honourable to themselves and their country. A general plainness and neatness in dress, buildings and equipage, and a certain stillness and gravity of manner, perhaps in some degree peculiar to commercial people, distinguish them from the citizens of the metropolis. It is indeed to be wished that the sober industry here so universally practised, may become more extensive through the union, and form the national character of federal Americans.

A court house, built in 1786, at the joint expense of the county and town, forms a principal ornament, and is executed in a style of architecture that would add to the elegance of any city in the union. The Supreme Judicial Court holds a term here the second Tuesday of November, the courts of Common Pleas and Sessions, the second Tuesday of March and September.

A manufactory of duck and sail cloth was lately instituted here, and is prosecuted with much spirit.

The melancholy delusion of 1692 originated in this town; in the family of the Rev. Mr. Paris, the then minister, and here was the principal theatre of the bloody business. At the upper end of the town, at a place called, from the number of executions which took place there, Gallows-hill, the graves of the unhappy sufferers may yet be traced. Though this unfortunate and disgraceful business was chiefly transacted here, it is well known that the leading people, both of church and state, in the colony, took an active part in it. Unjust therefore and highly absurd it is to fix a peculiar odium on the town of Salem for what was the general weakness or crime of the country. While the sarcastic smile is excited among the vain and unthinking, or the insulting abuse of liberal prejudice is unjustly thrown on this shocking tragedy, the serious cannot but lament to find the human mind subject to so gross deceptions, and the man of candour will hasten to drop the curtain on the dismal scene.

South-east from Salem, and at four miles distance from it, lies Marblehead, containing one episcopal and two congregational churches, besides a small society of separatists. The chief attention of this town is devoted to the bank fishery, and more is done in the line than in any port in the government. The late war putting a total stop to this business, and vast numbers of the men before employed in it being lost by land and water, the peace found those who survived in circumstances of great distress. Great exertions were made to revive the former course of business, and it is lamented by every friend to industry and the prosperity of the country, that these exertions have not been crowned with more success; every thing here has more and more the symptoms of decay. The great number of widows and orphans caused by the war, and left at the close of it to the charge of the town, are a melancholy burthen which nothing less than governmental aid can relieve. A lottery has been granted by the legislature for the double purpose of lessening the weight of this burden, and repairing the sea wall, which protects the harbour, and which was in imminent danger of giving way, to the great detriment, if not utter ruin of the port.

A peculiarity observable in our fishing town may be worthy mentioning. The spring, summer, and autumn, being entirely occupied in the laborious pursuit of their employment, leaves no time for amusements. In winter, every thing is different. There are
few.

few calls to labour, and all are devoted to mirth and jollity. A continual round of gaiety and dissipation occupy the fisherman's time, until returning spring calls him to returning labour, which he now pursues as eagerly as he did just before his amusement.

Newbury Port, originally part of Newbury, from which its incorporation detached it in 1764, and by which and Merrimack river it is wholly encircled, is perhaps the most limited in its extent of land, of any township in the Commonwealth, containing but about 640 acres. Here are four houses for public worship, viz. one Episcopalian, one Presbyterian, and two Congregational. It was formerly remarkable for the number of vessels annually built here; but since the commencement of the late war, this business has in a great degree failed, and no manufacture of consequence has yet supplied its place. The continental frigates, Boston and Hancock, were built here, besides many large private armed ships, during the war. The trade to the West Indies is carried on here with much spirit and to a great amount. Large quantities of rum are distilled, which is principally exported to the southern States. Some vessels are employed in the freighting business, and a few in the fishery. In November, 1790, there were owned in this port six ships, 45 brigantines, 39 schooners, and 28 sloops, making in the whole 11,870 tons. A term of the courts of Common Pleas and General Sessions is held here on the last Tuesday in September.

Ipswich, by the Indians called Agawam, in the county of Essex, is 32 miles N. N. E. from Boston, is divided into five parishes, and contains 4562 inhabitants. An excellent stone bridge, across Ipswich river, composed of two arches, with one solid pier in the bed of the river, connects the two parts of the town, and was executed under the direction of the late Honourable Judge Choate, in a style of strength and neatness hitherto unequalled in this country. This was heretofore a place of much more consideration than at present. Its decline is attributed to a barred harbour and shoal rivers. Its natural situation is very pleasant, and on all accounts excellently well calculated to be a large manufacturing town. The supreme Judicial Court, the courts of Common Pleas and Sessions, are held here once in a year; and from its central situation, appears to be the most convenient place for all the courts and public offices of the county.

Charlestown, called by the aboriginal inhabitants, *Misbowum*, lies north of Boston, with which it is connected by Charles river bridge, and is the principal town in Middlesex county. The town, properly so called, is built on a peninsula, formed by Mystic river, on the east, and a bay, setting up from Charles river on the west. It is very advantageously situated for health,* navigation, trade, and manufactures of almost all the various kinds. A dam across the mouth of the bay, which sets up from Charles river, west of the town, would afford a great number of mill seats for manufactures. Bunker, Breed's, and Cobble, now Barrel's, hills, are celebrated in the history of the American Revolution; and no less so for the elegant and delightful prospect which they afford of Boston, and its charmingly variegated harbour—of Cambridge and its Colleges, and of an extensive tract of highly cultivated country.

The destruction of this town by the British, in 1775, we have menticed in the historical sketch we have given of the war. Before its destruction, several branches of manufactures were carried on to great advantage, some of which have been since revived; particularly the manufacture of pot and pearl ash, rum, ships leather in all its branches, silver, tin, brass, and pewter.

* In three years, ending 1791, eighty persons died, nineteen of whom were upwards of 60 years old; ten were upwards of 70; four upwards of 80, and one 90.

Cambridge and Concord are the most considerable inland towns in the county of Middlesex, the former is four miles from Boston, and is a pleasant town, and the seat of the university. The latter is nineteen miles N. W. of Boston, and is also a pleasant, healthy, thriving town. The Provincial Congress sat in Concord in 1774, and the general court have frequently held their sessions here when contagious diseases have prevailed in the capital. This town is rendered famous in history by its being the place where the first opposition was made to the British troops, on the memorable 19th of April 1775. The public buildings are, a congregational church, a spacious stone gaol, the best in New England, and a county court house. The town is accommodated with three handsome bridges, one of which is 208 feet long and 18 feet wide, supported by twelve piers, built after the manner of Charles river bridge. In 1791, there were 1590 inhabitants, in this town, eighty of whom were upwards 70 years old. For thirteen years past the average number of deaths has been seventeen, one in four of whom were 70 years old and upwards.

Plymouth, the principal town in the county of the same name, and the capital of the *old colony*, so called, is 42 miles S. E. of Boston, and contains about 300 houses. Before the war, the inhabitants of this town employed ninety sail of vessels, chiefly in the fishing business. But in the course of the war, they were mostly taken or destroyed by the enemy, and their seamen captivated, and many of the inhabitants reduced to indigence. They have since, in a great measure, emerged from their distressed state. The harbour is spacious, but the water is not deep. The town is famous for being the first place settled by the pious ancestors of the New Englanders, in 1620.

Worcester, the shire town of the county of the same name, is the largest inland town in New England, and is situated about forty-seven miles westward of Boston. The public buildings in this town, are two congregational churches, a court house, and a strong stone gaol. The inhabitants carry on a large inland trade, and manufacture pot and pearl ash, cotton and linen goods, besides some other articles.

Printing, in its various branches, is carried on very extensively in this town, by Isaiah Thomas, who, in the year 1791, carried through his presses two editions of the Bible, the one the large royal quarto, the first of that kind published in America, the other a large folio, with fifty copper plates, besides several other books of consequence. His printing apparatus consists of ten printing presses, with types in proportion; and he is now making preparations for the printing of bibles of various smaller kinds, which will cause him to make a great addition to his works, of both presses and types. This printing apparatus is now the largest in America.

On Connecticut river, in the county of Hampshire, there are a number of very pleasant towns, among which are Springfield and Hadley, on the east side of the river; Northampton, Hatfield and Deerfield on the west. Courts are held in all these places in their turn, except Hatfield. Springfield is the oldest of these towns, having been settled as early as 1636. Its public buildings are a congregational church, court house, and gaol. A large proportion of the military stores of the commonwealth are lodged here. A clear meandering brook runs through the town from north to south, and adds much to its beauty and pleasantness.

Stockbridge, Great Barrington, and Lenox, are the principal towns in Berkshire county, and lie from 45 to 55 miles W. N. W. from Springfield.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The active militia of Massachusetts is composed of all able bodied, white male citizens from 16 to 40 years of age, excepting officers of government, and those who have held commissioners, &c. The whole is completely armed and organized, and is formed into nine divisions, each commanded by a major-general, nineteen

nineteen brigades, consisting of seventy-nine regiments of infantry, eleven battalions of cavalry, and eight battalions of artillery; together forming a well-regulated body of 50,000 infantry, 2000 cavalry, and 1500 artillery men, with sixty pieces of field artillery. This active military corps is assembled by companies for discipline, in their respective districts, four times a year; and once a year by regiments or brigades; at which time they are reviewed and inspected.

Besides the military strength above mentioned, which may be considered as the active militia of the State, there are enrolled about 25,000 men from 40 to 60 years of age, who are obliged always to keep themselves completely armed; and they are required, under penalty by law, to exhibit their arms once a year to their respective captains, who make returns thereof. This last corps is called the alarm list, and may be properly distinguished as the *Corps de Reserve* of the Commonwealth.

RELIGION.] The religion of this Commonwealth is established, by their excellent constitution, on a most liberal and tolerant plan. All persons of whatever religious profession or sentiments, may worship God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences, unmolested, provided they do not disturb the peace.

The following statement shews what are the several religious denominations in this State, and their proportional numbers.

Denominations.	Number of Congregations.	Supposed number of each denomination.
Congregationalists,	400	277,600
Baptists,	84	58,296
Episcopalians,	16	11,104
Friends, or Quakers,	10	6,940
Presbyterians,	4	2,776
Universalists,	2	1,388
Roman Catholics	1	694
Total	517	358,798

In this statement, it is supposed that all the inhabitants in the State consider themselves as belonging to one or the other of the religious denominations mentioned; and that each religious society, of every denomination, is composed of an equal number of souls; that is, each is supposed to contain 694, which, if we reckon the number of inhabitants in the State at 358,798, will be the proportion for each congregation.

Although this may not be an exact apportionment of the different sects, yet it is perhaps as accurate as the nature of the subject will allow, and sufficient to give a general idea of the proportion which the several denominations bear to each other.

The number of congregational churches in 1749 was 250.

In 1760, the number of inhabitants in this State was about 268,850. The proportion of the sects was then nearly as follows, viz.

Sects.	Congregations.	Supposed number of souls of each sect.
Congregationalists,	306	225,426
Friends meetings,	22	16,192
Baptists,	20	14,723
Episcopalians,	13	9,568
Presbyterians,	4	2,944
Total	365	268,850

RHODE ISLAND.

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Counties.	Towns.	No. of Inhabitants.	Slaves.	No. in each County.
NEWPORT	Newport	6716	223	14,300
	Portsmouth	1560	17	
	New Shoreham	682	47	
	Jamestown	507	16	
	Middletown	840	15	
	Tivertown	2453	25	
	Little Compton	1542	23	
PROVIDENCE	Providence	6380	48	24,391
	Smithfield	3171	5	
	Scituate	2315	6	
	Gloucester	4025	1	
	Cumberland	1964	10	
	Cranston	1877	3	
	Johnston	1320	5	
	North Providence	1071	4	
	Foster	2268	10	
	Westerly	2298	96	
WASHINGTON	North Kingston	2907	175	18,075
	South Kingston	4131	12	
	Charlestown	2022	37	
	Exeter	2495	2	
	Richmond	1760	7	
	Hopkinton	2462	64	
BRISTOL	Bristol	1406	22	3,211
	Warren	1122	12	
	Barrington	683	35	
KENT	Warwick	2493	13	8,848
	East Greenwich	1824	10	
	West Greenwich	2054	5	
	Coventry	2477		
Total five	Thirty	67877	948	68,825

The number of inhabitants in Rhode Island and Providence Plantations was in the year

1730 { 15,352 Whites 2,633 Blacks	1748 { 29,755 Whites 4,373 Blacks	1761 { 35,939 Whites 4,697 Blacks
1774 { 54,435 Whites 5,243 Blacks	1783 { 48,538 Whites 3,361 Blacks	1790 { 67,877 Whites 948 Blacks

BAYS, HARBOURS, AND ISLANDS.] Narraganset Bay makes up from south to north, between the main land on the east and west. It embosoms many fertile islands, the principal of which are Rhode Island, Canonnicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's and Hog islands.

The harbours are, Newport, Providence, Wickford; Patuxet, Warren, and Bristol.

Rhode Island, from which the State takes half its name, is 13 miles in length; its average breadth is about four miles. It is divided into three townships, Newport, Portsmouth, and Middletown. This island, in point of soil, climate, and situation.

may be ranked among the finest and most charming in the world. In its most flourishing state, it was called by travellers the *Eden* of America. But the change which the ravages of war, and a decrease of business, have effected, is great and melancholy. Some of the most ornamental country seats were destroyed, and their fine groves, orchards, and fruit-trees, wantonly cut down; and the gloom of its present decayed state is heightened by its charming natural situation, and by reflecting upon its former glory. The farming interest suffered far less injury than the commercial city of Newport, and has nearly recovered its former state—Between 30,000 and 40,000 sheep are fed on this island, besides neat cattle and horses.

Canonnicut Island lies west of Rhode Island, and is six miles in length, and about one mile in breadth. It was purchased of the Indians in 1657, and incorporated by act of assembly by the name of the Island of Jamestown, in 1678.

Block Island, called by the Indians, Maniffes, is 21 miles S. S. W. from Newport, and is the southernmost land belonging to the State. It was erected into a township, by the name of New Shoreham, in 1672. The inhabitants of this island were formerly noted for making good cheese. They catch considerable quantities of cod fish round the ledges near the island.

Prudence Island is nearly or quite as large as Canonnicut, and lies north of it, and is a part of the township of Portsmouth.

RIVERS.] Providence and Taunton rivers both fall into Narraganset bay, the former on the west, the latter on the east side of Rhode Island. Providence river rises partly in Massachusetts, and is navigable as far as Providence for ships of 900 tons, 30 miles from the sea. Taunton river is navigable for small vessels to Taunton.. Common tides rise about four feet.

Fall river is small, rising in Freetown, and passing through Tivertown. The line between the States of Massachusetts and Rhode Island passes Fall river bridge. Patuxet river rises in Mashapog pond, and five miles below Providence, empties into Narraganset bay. Pawtucket river, called more northerly Blackstone's river, empties into Seekhonck river, four miles N. N. E. from Providence, where are the falls hereafter described, over which is a bridge, on the post-road to Boston, and 40 miles from thence. The confluent stream empties into Providence river, about a mile below Wayboscett, or the great bridge. Naspatucket river falls into the bay about one mile and a half N. W. of Wayboscett bridge. Moshassuck river falls into the same bay, three-fourths of a mile north of the bridge. These rivers united form Providence river, which, a few miles below the town, receives the name of Narraganset bay, and affords fine fish, oysters, and lobsters in great plenty.

CLIMATE.] Rhode Island is as healthful a country as any part of North America. The winters in the maritime parts of the State are milder than in the inland country; the air being softened by a sea vapour, which also enriches the soil. The summers are delightful, especially on Rhode Island, where the extreme heats, which prevail in other parts of America, are allayed by cool and refreshing breezes from the sea.

FISHES.] In the rivers and bays is plenty of sheeps-head, black-fish, herring, shad, lobsters, oysters, and clams; and around the shores of Rhode Island, besides those already mentioned, are cod, halibut, mackerel, bass, haddock, &c. &c. to the amount of more than seventy different kinds, so that in the seasons of fish, the markets are alive with them. Travellers are agreed that Newport furnishes the best fish-market in the world.

RELIGION.] The constitution of the State admits of no religious establishments, any further than depends upon the voluntary choice of individuals. All men professing

POPULATION.] The population of the State is accurately stated in the table of divisions. The counties of Essex, part of Suffolk, and part of Hampshire, are the most populous parts of the State. Essex has as many as 135 inhabitants for every square mile.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, &c.] See New England.

REVENUE AND TAXES.] The principal sources of revenue are land and poll taxes, and the sales of new lands. Taxes are levied on all males between sixteen and fifty, except such as are exempted by law—also on the number of acres of improved and unimproved land—on dwelling-houses and barns, ware-houses, stores, &c. These are all valued, and upon this valuation taxes are laid, to many pounds for every 1000l.

INVENTIONS AND IMPROVEMENTS.] Great improvements have of late been made in several manufacturing machines, by which those species of manufacture in which they are employed have been greatly facilitated in the execution, and fewer hands required. But the most ingenious improvement or invention, and which most deserves notice, is a complete and elegant Planetarium, six feet in diameter, constructed by Mr. Joseph Pope, of Boston. This is entirely a work of original genius and assiduous application, as Mr. Pope never saw a machine of the kind till his own was completed. It exhibits a proof of great strength of mind, and really does him much honour, both as a philosopher and a mechanic. This machine has been purchased for the University at Cambridge, and is a very useful and ornamental addition to the philosophical apparatus.

CONSTITUTION.] The constitution of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts established in 1780, contains a declaration of rights and a frame of government. The declaration asserts the natural freedom and equality of men---Liberty of conscience---Freedom of the Press---Trial by jury---Sovereignty and independence---that all power is in the people---that hereditary honours and emoluments are inadmissible---that every subject is entitled to protection of life, liberty, and property---and, in return, must obey the laws and pay his proportion of the common expense---that he shall not be obliged to accuse himself, but may be heard in his own defence---that he may keep arms; but standing armies shall not be maintained in time of peace---that no tax shall be levied without the consent of the people by their representatives---that no ex post facto law shall be made---that the martial law shall extend only to men in actual military service---that the legislative, executive, and judiciary powers shall be kept distinct, &c. By the frame of government, the power of legislation is lodged in a general court, consisting of two branches, viz. a senate and a house of representatives, each having a negative upon the other. They meet annually on the last Wednesday in May. No act can be passed without the approbation of the governor, unless two thirds of both branches are in favour of it after a revival. Either branch, or the governor and council, may require the opinion of the justices of the supreme judicial court upon important questions. Senators are chosen by districts, of which there cannot be less than thirteen. The number of counsellors and senators, for the whole Commonwealth, is forty; the number of each district is in proportion to their public taxes; but no district shall be so large, as to have more than six. Sixteen senators make a quorum. The representatives are chosen by the several towns, according to their numbers of rateable polls. For 150 polls one is elected; and for every addition of 225, an additional one. Their travelling expenses, to and from the general court, are defrayed by the public, but their wages for attendance are paid by their own towns. Impeachments for misconduct in office are made by the representatives, and tried by the senate; but the judgement can go only to removal from office and future disqualification. Money bills originate in the house of representatives, but may be altered by

the senate. Representatives are privileged from arrests on mesne process. Sixty members make a quorum. The supreme executive authority is vested in a governor, who is elected annually by the people, and has a council consisting of the lieutenant-governor, and nine gentlemen chosen out of the forty, who are returned for counsellors and senators. Five counsellors make a quorum. The governor is commander of all the military force of the Commonwealth. He may convene the general court, may adjourn them, when the two branches disagree about the time, and in their recesses may prorogue them from time to time, not exceeding ninety days---may pardon convicts, but the legislature alone can grant pardons, before conviction. He commissions all officers, and with the advice of the council, appoints all judicial officers. Military officers are thus appointed; the respective companies choose their captain and subalterns, who choose their regimental officers, who choose their brigadiers. The major generals are appointed by the general court. Justices of the peace are commissioned for seven years; all other judicial, and all executive and military officers, continue during good behaviour, yet are removeable by the governor, upon address of the legislature. The salaries of the governor and justices of the supreme court cannot be diminished, although they may be enlarged. Official qualifications are as follows:---for a voter, twenty-one years of age, one year's residence, a freehold of 3l. annual value, or 60l. of any other estate---for a representative, 100l. freehold, or 200l. other estate, and one year's residence in the town---for a senator, 300l. freehold, or 600l. other estate in the Commonwealth, and five year's residence in the district---for governor or lieutenant-governor, 1000l. freehold, and seven year's residence. Every governor, lieutenant-governor, counsellor, senator, or representative, must declare that he believes the Christian religion, and has the legal qualifications. A governor, lieutenant-governor, or justice of the supreme court, can hold no other office. No man shall hold two of these offices, judge of probates, sheriff, register. No justices of the supreme court, secretary, attorney-general, treasurer, judge of probate, instructor of Harvard College, clerk, register, sheriff, or custom officer, can have a seat in the legislature. The privilege of habeas corpus cannot be suspended more than a year at one time. In 1795, if two thirds of the qualified voters desire, a convention shall be called to revise the constitution.

HISTORY.] See Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts—Minot's History of the Insurrection in Massachusetts—The Publications of the Historical Society, in the American Apollo—Hazard's Historical Collections—Chalmer's Political Annals, and Gough's History of the People called Quakers.

RHODE ISLAND, AND PROVIDENCE PLANTATIONS.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 68 } between { 3° and 4° E. Long.
Breadth 40 } { 41° and 42° N. Lat.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north and east, by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts; south, by the Atlantic; west, by Connecticut. These limits comprehend what is called Rhode Island and Providence Plantations.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This State is divided into five counties, which are subdivided into 30 townships, as follows:

Counties.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] This State, generally speaking, is a country for pasture and not for grain. It however produces corn, rye, barley, oats, and in some parts wheat, sufficient for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, and culinary roots and plants in great abundance; and in good perfection; cider is made for exportation. The north-western parts of the State are but thinly inhabited, and are more rocky and barren than the other parts. The tract of country lying between South Kingston and the Connecticut line, called the Narraganset country, is excellent grazing land, and is inhabited by a number of large and wealthy farmers, who raise some of the finest neat cattle in New England, weighing from 1600 to 1800 weight. They keep large dairies, and make butter and cheese of the best quality and in large quantities for exportation. Narraganset has been famed for an excellent breed of pacing horses, remarkable for their speed and hardiness for enduring the fatigues of a journey; this breed of horses has much depreciated of late, the best mares having been purchased by the people from the westward.

TRADE.] Before the war, the merchants in Rhode Island imported from Great Britain, dry goods—from Africa, slaves—from the West Indies, sugars, coffees, and molasses—and from the neighbouring colonies, lumber and provisions. With the bills which they obtained in Surinam and other Dutch West India Islands, they paid their merchants in England; their sugars they carried to Holland; the slaves from Africa, they carried to the West Indies, together with the lumber and provisions procured from their neighbours; the rum distilled from the molasses was carried to Africa to purchase negroes; with their dry goods from England they trafficked with the neighbouring colonies. By this kind of circuitous commerce, they subsisted and grew rich. But the war, and some other events, have had a great, and in most respects, an injurious effect upon the trade of this State. The slave trade, which was a source of wealth to many of the people in Newport, and in other parts of the State, has happily been abolished. The legislature have passed a law prohibiting ships from going to Africa for slaves, and selling them in the West India Islands; and the oath of one seaman, belonging to the ship, is sufficient evidence of the fact. This law is more favourable to the cause of humanity than to the temporal interests of the merchants who had been engaged in this inhuman traffick. The town of Bristol carries on a considerable trade to Africa, the West Indies, and to different parts of the United States: but by far the greatest part of the commerce of this State is at present carried on by the inhabitants of the flourishing town of Providence. In June 1791, there were belonging to this port

			Tons.	95 parts.
11	Ships, containing	- - -	3,066	54
35	Brigs	- - -	4,266	48
1	Snow	- - -	141	
1	Poleere	- - -	101	
25	Schooners	- - -	1,320	21
56	Sloops	- - -	3,047	56
Total	129 sail, containing		11,942	84

The present exports from the State are flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, and cotton and linen goods. The imports consists of European and West India goods, and logwood from the Bay of Honduras. Upwards of 600 vessels enter and clear annually at the different ports in this State. The amount of exports from this State to foreign countries, for one year, ending the 30th of September 1791, was 470,131 dollars 9 cents.

LIGHT HOUSE.] For the safety and convenience of sailing into the Narraganset Bay and harbour of Newport, a light house was erected in 1749, in Beavertail, at the south end of Canonicut Island.

The diameter at the base is 24 feet, and at the top 13 feet. The height from the ground to the top of the cornice is 58 feet, round which is a gallery, and within that stands the lanthorn, which is about 11 feet high, and 8 feet in diameter.

The ground the light house stands upon is about 12 feet above the surface of the sea at high water.

MANUFACTURES.] The inhabitants of this State are progressing rapidly in this branch of business. A cotton manufactory has been erected at Providence, which from present prospects will answer the expectations of the proprietors. The warps are spun by water with a machine, which is an improvement of Mr. Arkwright's; and strong, smooth and excellent yarn, is thus made both for warps and stockings. The filling of the cotton goods is spun with jennies. In these several works five carding machines are employed, and a calender, constructed after the European manner. Jeans, fustians, denims, thicksets, velvets, &c. &c. are here manufactured and sent to the southern States. Large quantities of linen and tow cloth are made in different parts of this State for exportation. But the most considerable manufactures in this State are those of iron, such as bar and sheet iron, steel, nail rods and nails, implements of husbandry, stoves, pots, and other household utensils, the iron work of shipping, anchors, bells &c. The other manufactures of this State are rum, corn, spirits, chocolate, paper, wool and cotton cards, &c. beside domestic manufactures for family use, which, in this, in common with the other States, amount to a vast sum which cannot be ascertained.

MINERALS, FOSSILS, &c.] Iron ore is found in great plenty in several parts of the State. The iron works on Patuxet river, twelve miles from Providence, are supplied with ore from a bed four miles and a half distant, which lies in a valley, through which runs a brook. The brook is turned into a new channel, and the ore pits are cleared of water by a steam engine, constructed and made at the furnace, by, and under the direction, of the late Joseph Brown, Esq. of Providence, which continues a very useful monument of his mechanical genius. At this ore bed are a variety of ores, curious stones, and ochres.

At Diamond Hill, in the county of Providence, which is so called from its sparkling and shining appearance, there are a variety of peculiar stones, more curious than useful. Not far from this hill, in the township of Cumberland, is a copper mine, mixed with iron strongly impregnated with loadstone, of which some large pieces have been found in the neighbourhood. No method has yet been discovered to work it to advantage.

An abundance of limestone is found in this State, particularly in the county of Providence, of which large quantities of lime are made and exported. This limestone is of different colours, and is the true marble, both of the white, plain, and variegated. It takes a fine polish, and works equal to any in America.

There are several mineral springs in this State; to one of which, near Providence, many people resort to bathe and drink the water.

CHIEF TOWNS.] Newport and Providence are the two principal towns in the State. Newport lies in lat. $41^{\circ} 35'$. This town was first settled by Mr. William Coddington, afterwards governor, and the father of Rhode Island, with seventeen others, in 1639. Its harbour, which is one of the finest in the world, spreads westward before the town. The entrance is easy and safe, and a large fleet may anchor in

ness one Supreme Being, are equally protected by the laws, and no particular sect can claim pre-eminence. This unlimited liberty in religion is one principal cause why there is such a variety of religious sects in Rhode Island. The Baptists are the most numerous of any denomination in the State. These, as well as the other Baptists in New England, are chiefly upon the Calvinistic plan as to doctrines, and independents in regard to church government. There are, however, some, who profess the Arminian tenets, and are called Arminian Baptists. Others observe the Jewish, or Saturday Sabbath, from a persuasion that it was one of the ten commandments, which they plead are all in their nature moral, and were never abrogated in the New Testament, and must, at least, be deemed of equal validity for public worship as any day particularly set apart by Jesus Christ and his Apostles. These are called Sabbatarian, or Seventh-day Baptists. There are others, who are called Separate Baptists.

The other religious denominations in Rhode Island are, Congregationalists, Friends or Quakers, Episcopalians, Moravians, and Jews. Besides these, there is a considerable number of the people, who can be reduced to no particular denomination.

In many towns, public worship is too much neglected by the greater part of the inhabitants. They pay no taxes for the support of ecclesiastics of any denomination; and a peculiarity which distinguishes this State from every other protestant country in the known world is, that no contract formed by the minister with his people, for his salary, is valid in law: so that ministers are dependent wholly on the integrity of the people for their support, since their salaries are not recoverable by law. It ought in justice, however, to be observed, that the clergy in general are liberally maintained, and none who merit it have reason to complain for want of support.

LITERATURE.] The literature of this State is confined principally to the towns of Newport and Providence. There are men of learning and abilities scattered through other towns, but they are rare. The bulk of the inhabitants, in other parts of the State, are involved in greater ignorance, perhaps, than in most other parts of New England. An impartial history of their transactions since the peace, would evince the truth of the above observations.

At Providence is Rhode Island college. The charter for founding this seminary of learning was granted by the general assembly of the State, by the name of the "Trustees and Fellows of the College or University, in the English colony of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations,"* in 1764, in consequence of the petition of a large number of the most respectable characters in the State. By the charter, the corporation of the college consists of two separate branches, with distinct, separate, and respective powers. The number of trustees is thirty-six, of whom twenty-two are of the denomination called Baptists, five of the denomination of Friends, five Episcopalians, and four Congregationalists. The same proportion of the different denominations to continue *in perpetuum*. The number of the fellows (inclusive of the president, who is a fellow *ex officio*) is twelve, of whom eight are Baptists, the others chosen indiscriminately from any denomination. The concurrence of both branches, by a majority of each, is necessary for the validity of an act, except adjudging and conferring degrees, which exclusively belongs to the fellowship as a learned faculty. The president must be a Baptist: professors and other officers of instruction are not limited to any particular denomination. There is annually a general meeting of the corporation, on the first Wednesday in September, at which time the public commencement is held.

* This name to be altered when any generous benefactor arises, which by his liberal donation shall entitle himself to the honour of giving the college a name.

This institution was first founded at Warren, in the county of Bristol, and the first commencement held there in 1769.

In the year 1770, the college was removed to Providence, where a large, elegant building was erected for its accommodation, by the generous donations of individuals, mostly from the town of Providence. It is situated on a hill to the east of the town; and while its elevated situation renders it delightful, by commanding an extensive, variegated prospect, it furnishes it with a pure, salubrious air. The edifice is of brick, four stories high, 150 feet long, and 46 wide, with a projection of ten feet each side. It has an entry lengthwise, with rooms on each side. There are 48 rooms for the accommodation of students, and eight larger ones for public uses. The roof is covered with slate.

From December 1776, to June 1782, the college edifice was used by the French and American troops for an hospital and barracks, so that the course of education was interrupted during that period. No degrees were conferred from 1776 to 1786. From 1786, the college again became regular, and is now very flourishing, containing upwards of sixty students.

This institution is under the instruction of a president, a professor of divinity, a professor of natural and experimental philosophy, a professor of mathematics and astronomy, a professor of natural history, and three tutors. The institution has a library, of between two and three thousand volumes, containing a valuable philosophical apparatus. Nearly all the funds of the college are at interest in the treasury of the State, and amount to almost 2000*l*.

At Newport there is a flourishing academy, under the direction of a rector and tutors, who teach the learned languages, English grammar, geography, &c.

SOCIETIES.] A marine society was established at Newport in 1752, for the purpose of relieving distressed widows and orphans of maritime brethren, and such of their society as may need assistance.

The Providence society for promoting the abolition of slavery, for the relief of persons unlawfully held in bondage, and for improving the condition of the African race, commenced in 1789, and was incorporated the year following. It consists of upwards of 150 members, part of whom belong to the State of Massachusetts.

MOUNTAIN.] In the town of Bristol is Mount Hope, or as some call it, Mount Haup, which is remarkable only for its having been the seat of King Philip, and the place where he was killed.

BRIDGES.] The great bridge in the town of Providence, formerly called Weybosset, from a high hill of that name, which stood near the west end of the bridge, but which is now removed, and its base built upon, is the only bridge of considerable note in this State. It is 160 feet long, and 22 feet wide, supported by two wooden treffels and two stone pillars. It unites the eastern and western parts of the town, and is a place of resort in summer, affording a pleasant prospect of all vessels entering and leaving the harbour. This is not a toll-bridge.

The bridge over Patucket Falls is a work of considerable magnitude, and much ingenuity.

The assembly of this State, in their session of May 1792, passed an act incorporating three companies, for the purpose of erecting three bridges—one over the upper, and another over the lower ferry of Seekhonk river, and a third over Howland ferry, which would unite Rhode Island with Tiverton on the main; the two former will greatly accommodate the town of Providence—the latter must prove highly advantageous to the people of Newport and others on Rhode Island. To such works of utility and enterprise every good man wishes success.

in it and ride in perfect security. It is probable this may, in some future period, become one of the man of war ports of the American Empire. The town lies north and south upon a gradual ascent as you proceed eastward from the water, and exhibits a beautiful view from the harbour, and from the neighbouring hills which lie westward upon the main. West of the town is Goat Island, on which is a fort. Between this island and Rhode Island is the harbour. Front or water street is a mile in length.

Newport contains about 1000 houses, built chiefly of wood. It has nine houses for public worship: three for the Baptists, two for Congregationalists, one for Episcopalians, one for Quakers, one for Moravians, and a synagogue for the Jews. The other public buildings are a state-house, and an edifice for the public library. The situation, form, and architecture of the state-house, give it a pleasing appearance. It stands sufficiently elevated, and a long wharf and paved parade lead up to it from the harbour.

The prohibition of the slave trade, the destructive influence of paper money (which has now, however, ceased to operate) combined with the devastation of a cruel war, have occasioned a stagnation of business which is truly melancholy and distressing. This city, far famed for the beauty of its situation, the salubrity of its climate, and the hospitality and politeness of its inhabitants, and which was the place of resort for invalids from a great distance, now wears the gloomy aspect of decay. Thousands of its inhabitants are almost destitute of employment. This circumstance, together with that of there being a great abundance of raw materials in the vicinity, strongly mark out this city as a convenient and proper situation for extensive manufactures. Should the gentlemen of fortune turn their capitals into this channel, it is thought that they would not only derive a profit to themselves, but be instrumental in giving employment and bread to thousands of now unhappy people, and of reviving the former importance of their beautiful city.

The excellent accommodations and regulations of the numerous packets which belong to this port, and which ply thence to Providence and New York, ought not to pass unnoticed. They are said to be superior to any thing of the kind in Europe. The appearance of the islands in Narraganset Bay, and of the circumjacent country, in the spring and summer seasons, either from the land or water, is extremely beautiful and charming.

Providence, situated in lat. $41^{\circ} 51'$ on both sides of Providence river, is 35 miles from the sea, and 30 N. by W. from Newport. It is the oldest town in the State. Roger Williams, and his company, were its first settlers in 1636.

This town is divided into two parts by the river, and connected by the bridge already described. Ships of almost any size sail up and down the channel, which is marked out by stakes, erected at points, shoals, and beds lying in the river: so that strangers may come up to the town without a pilot. A ship of 950 tons, for the East India trade, was lately built in this town, and fitted for sea. In 1764 there were belonging to the county of Providence, 54 sail of vessels, containing 4,320 tons. In 1791, they had 129 sail, containing 11,942 tons.

This town suffered much by the Indian war of 1675, when a number of its inhabitants removed to Rhode island for shelter. In the late war the case was reversed: many of the inhabitants of that Island removed to Providence.

The public buildings are, an elegant meeting house for Baptists, 80 feet square, with a lofty and beautiful steeple and a large bell, cast at the Furnace Hope in Scituate—a meeting house for Friends or Quakers, two for Congregationalists,

an episcopal church, a handsome court-house, 70 feet by 40, in which is deposited a library for the use of the inhabitants of the town and country—a work-house, a market-house 80 feet long and 40 feet wide, and a brick school-house, in which four schools are kept. The college edifice we have already mentioned. The houses in this town are generally built of wood, though there are some brick buildings which are large and elegant. At a convenient distance from the town an hospital for the small-pox, and other diseases, has been erected. There are two spermaceti works, a number of distilleries, sugar-houses, and other manufactories. Several forts were erected in and near Providence during the late war, which, however, are not kept in repair. This town has an extensive trade with Massachusetts, Connecticut, and part of Vermont; and from its advantageous situation, promises to be among the largest towns in New England. It sends four representatives to the General Assembly—the other towns in the county send but two.

Bristol is a pleasant thriving town, about 16 miles north of Newport, on the main: part of the town was destroyed by the British, but it has since been rebuilt: it has an episcopal and a congregational church. This town is noted for raising large quantities of onion and other roots. A number of vessels are owned by the inhabitants, and they carry on a considerable trade to Africa, the West Indies, and to different parts of the United States.

Warren is also a flourishing town---trades to the West Indies and other places, and builds ships.

Little Compton, called by the Indians *Secconnet*, is said to be the best cultivated township in the State, and affords a greater supply of provisions for market, such as meats of the several kinds, butter, cheese, vegetables, &c. than any other town of its size. The inhabitants, who are an industrious and sober people, and in these respects an example worthy the notice and imitation of their brethren in some other parts of the State, manufacture linen and tow cloth, flannels, &c. of an excellent quality, and in considerable quantities for sale.

East Greenwich and Warwick are noted for making good cyder, and formerly for raising tobacco for exportation.

INDIANS.] A few years since there were about 500 Indians in this State: the greater part of them reside at Charlestown: they are peaceable and well-disposed towards government, and speak the English language.

CURIOSITIES.] About four miles north-east of Providence lies a small village, called Pautucket, a place of some trade, and famous for lamprey eels. Through this village runs Pautucket river, which empties into Seekhonk river at this place. In this river is a beautiful fall of water, directly over which a bridge has been built, which divides the Commonwealth of Massachusetts from the State of Rhode Island. The fall, in its whole length, is upwards of fifty feet: the water passes through several chasms in a rock which runs diametrically across the bed of the stream, and serves as a dam to the water. Several mills have been erected upon these falls; and the spouts and channels which have been constructed to conduct the streams to their respective wheels, and the bridge, have taken very much from the beauty and grandeur of the scene; which would otherwise have been indefinably charming and romantic.

In the town of Middletown, on Rhode Island, about two miles from Newport, is a place called Purgatory; it joins to the sea on the east side of the island: it is a large cavity or opening, in a high bed of rocks, about twelve feet in diameter at top; and about forty feet deep before you reach the water, of which, as it joins the sea, it has
always

always a large depth. The rocks on each side appear to have been once united, and were probably separated by some convulsion in nature.

CONSTITUTION.] The constitution of this State is founded on the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663; and the frame of government was not essentially altered by the revolution. The legislature of this State consists of two branches---a senate or upper house, composed of ten members, besides the governor and deputy-governor, called, in the charter, *assistants*---and a house of representatives, composed of deputies from the several towns. The members of the legislature are chosen twice a year; and there are two sessions of this body annually, viz. on the first Wednesday in May, and the last Wednesday in October.

The supreme executive power is vested in a governor, or, in his absence, in the deputy-governor, who, with the assistants, secretary, and general treasurer, are chosen annually in May by the suffrages of the people. The governor presides in the upper house, but has only a single voice in enacting laws.

There is one supreme judicial court, composed of five judges, whose jurisdiction extends over the whole State, and who hold two courts annually in each county.

In each county there is an inferior court of common pleas and general sessions of the peace, held twice a year for the trial of causes, not capital, arising within the county, from which an appeal lies to the supreme court.

HISTORY.] This State was first settled from Massachusetts. Motives of the same kind with those which are well known to have occasioned the settlement of most of the other United States, gave birth to this. The emigrants from England who came to Massachusetts, though they did not perfectly agree in religious sentiments, had been tolerably united by their common zeal against the ceremonies of the church of England. But as soon as they were removed from ecclesiastical courts, and possessed of a patent allowing liberty of conscience, they fell into disputes and contentions among themselves: and notwithstanding all their sufferings and complaints in England, excited by the principle of uniformity, such is human nature, the majority here were as fond of this principle, as those from whose persecution they had fled.

The true grounds of religious liberty were not embraced or understood at this time by any sect. While all disclaimed persecution for the sake of conscience, a regard for the public peace and for the preservation of the church of Christ from infection, together with the obstinacy of the Hereticks, was urged in justification of that, which, stripped of all its disguises, the light of nature and the laws of Christ in the most solemn manner condemn.

Mr. Roger Williams, a minister who came over to New England in 1631, was charged with holding a variety of errors, and was on that account forced to leave his house, land, wife and children, at Salem, in the dead of winter, and to seek a residence without the limits of Massachusetts. Governor Winthrop advised him to pursue his course to Nehiganset, or Narraganset Bay, which he did, and fixed himself at Secunk, or Seckhonk now Rehoboth: but that place being within the bounds of Plymouth colony, Governor Winslow, in a friendly manner, advised him to remove to the other side of the river, where the lands were not covered by any patent. Accordingly in 1636, Mr. Williams, and four others, crossed Seckhonk river, and landed among the Indians, by whom they were hospitably received, and thus laid the foundation of a town, which, from a sense of God's merciful providence to him, he called Providence. Here he was soon after joined by a number of others, and though they were secured from the Indians by the terror of the English, yet they, for a considerable time,

suffered much from fatigue and want; but they enjoyed liberty of conscience, which has ever since been inviolably maintained in this State.

The unhappy divisions and contentions in Massachusetts still prevailed, and in the year 1636, Governor Winthrop strove to exterminate the opinions which he disapproved: accordingly, a Synod was called at Newtown (now Cambridge) on the 30th of August, when eighty erroneous opinions were presented, debated, and condemned; and a court holden in October following, at the same place, banished a few leading persons of those accused of these errors, and censured several others; not, it seems, for holding these opinions, but for seditious conduct. The disputes which occasioned this disturbance, were about the same points as the five questions debated between the Synod and Mr. Cotton, which are thus described by Dr. Mather: They were, "about the order of things in our union to our Lord Jesus Christ; about the influence of our faith in the application of his righteousness; about the use of our sanctification in evidencing our justification; and about the consideration of our Lord Jesus Christ by men yet under a covenant of works; briefly, they were about the points whereupon depends the grounds of our assurance of blessedness in a better world."*

The whole colony of Massachusetts at this time was in a violent ferment. The election of civil officers was carried by a party spirit, excited by religious dissension. Those who were banished by the court, joined by a number of their friends, went in quest of a new settlement, and came to Providence, where they were kindly entertained by Mr. R. Williams; who, by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. procured for them, from the Indians, Aquidnick, now Rhode Island. Here, in 1638, the people, eighteen in number, formed themselves into a body politic, and chose Mr. Coddington, their leader, to be their judge or chief magistrate. This same year the Sachems signed the deed or grant of the island; for which *Indian gift*, it is said, they paid very dearly, by being obliged to make repeated purchases of the same lands from several claimants.

The other parts of the State were purchased of the natives at several successive periods.

In the year 1643, the people being destitute of a patent or any legal authority, Mr. Williams went to England as agent; and, by the assistance of Sir Henry Vane, jun. obtained by the Earl of Warwick (then governor and admiral of all the plantations) and his council, "a free and absolute charter of civil incorporation of Providence Plantations, in Narraganset Bay." This lasted until the charter granted by Charles II. in 1663, by which the incorporation was stiled, "the English colony of Rhode Island, and Providence Plantations in New England." This charter, without any essential alteration, has remained the foundation of their government ever since.

As the original inhabitants of this State were persecuted for the sake of conscience, a most liberal and free toleration was established by them. So little has the civil authority to do with religion here, that, as has been already hinted, no contract between a minister and a society (unless incorporated for that purpose) is of any force. It is probably for these reasons that so many different sects have ever been found here; and that the Sabbath, and all religious institutions, have been more neglected in this than in any other of the New England States. Mr. Williams became a Baptist in a few years after his settling at Providence, and was active in forming a church of that persuasion in 1639, but ceased to walk with it the following year. This church, in 1653, disagreed about the rite of laying on of hands, some holding it necessary to church communion, others esteeming it indifferent; upon which the church divided. At

Newport,

* Mag. B. 7. 17.

Newport, Mr. John Clark and some others formed a church, in 1644, on the principles of the Baptists; which church was afterwards divided like that at Providence.

In 1700 the Friends or Quakers meeting-house was built in Newport: their yearly meeting, till Governor Coddington's death, was held in his house, and he died a member of that body in 1688.

In 1720 there was a Congregational church gathered at Newport, and the Reverend Nathaniel Clap was ordained its pastor. Out of this church another was formed in 1728. The worship of God, according to the rites of the church of England, was instituted here in 1706, by the Society for propagating the gospel in foreign parts. And in 1738, there were seven worshipping assemblies in this town, and a large society of Quakers at Portsmouth, at the other end of the island.

In 1630 the colony was filled with inhabitants, and chiefly by the natural increase of the settlers. The number of souls in the State at this time was 17,935, of which no more than 985 were Indians, and 1648 Negroes.

In 1738, there were above one hundred sail of vessels belonging to Newport.

The colony of Rhode Island, from its local situation, has ever been less exposed to the incursions of the neighbouring Indians, and from the French from Canada, than their neighbours in Massachusetts and Connecticut. Many of the colony have, from its first establishment, professed the principles of the Quakers, which forbade them to fight: for these reasons, the colony has been very little concerned in the old wars with the French and Indians. In the expedition against Port Royal in 1710, and in the abortive attempt against Canada in 1711, they had some forces. Towards the intended expedition against Canada, in 1746, they raised 300 men, and equipped a sloop of war with 100 seamen; but in their voyage to Nova Scotia they met with misfortunes and returned. Soon after, the design was dropped.

Throughout the whole of the late war with Great Britain, the inhabitants of this State have manifested a patriotic spirit; their troops have behaved gallantly, and they are honoured in having produced the second general in the field.*

CONNECTICUT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 82 } between { 41° and 42° 2' N. Latitude.
Breadth 57 } { 1° 50' and 3° 20' E. Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Massachusetts; east, by Rhode Island; south, by the Sound, which divides it from Long Island; west, by the State of New York.

The divisional line between Connecticut and Massachusetts, as settled in 1713, was found to be about seventy-two miles in length. The line dividing Connecticut from Rhode Island was settled in 1728, and found to be about 45 miles. The sea coast, from the mouth of Paukatuk river, which forms a part of the eastern boundary of Connecticut, in a direct south-westerly line to the mouth of Byram river, is reckoned at about ninety miles. The line between Connecticut and New York runs from latitude

* General Green.

CONNECTICUT.

itude 41° to latitude $42^{\circ} 2'$; 72 miles. Connecticut contains about 4,674 square miles; equal to about 2,640,000 acres.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Connecticut is divided into eight counties, and about 100 townships. Each township is a corporation, invested with power to hold lands, choose their own town officers, to make prudential laws, the penalty of transgression not to exceed twenty shillings, and to choose their own representatives to the General Assembly. The townships are generally divided into two or more parishes, in each of which is one or more places for public worship, and school-houses at convenient distances.

The names of the counties, their chief towns, and population, in 1790, were as follows:

Counties.		Tot.No.Inhab.	No. Fema.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
Hartford	-	38,029	18,714	263	Hartford.
New Haven	-	30,830	15,258	433	New Haven.
New London	-	33,200	16,478	586	{ New London. Norwich.
Fairfield	-	36,250	17,541	797	{ Fairfield. Danbury.
Windham	-	28,921	14,406	184	Windham.
Litchfield	-	38,755	18,909	233	Litchfield.
Middlesex	-	18,855	9,632	221	{ Middleton. Haddam.
Tolland	-	13,106	6,510	47	Tolland.
Total	Eight	237,946	117,448	2,764	

RIVERS.] The principal rivers in this State are Connecticut, Housatonic, the Thames, and their branches. Under the heads of New Hampshire and Massachusetts we have already described Connecticut river till it enters this State: soon after it enters the bounds of Connecticut it passes over Enfield falls, to render which navigable for boats, a company has been constituted, and a sum of money raised by lottery. At Windsor it receives Windsor Ferry river from the west, which is formed by the junction of Farmingham and Poquabock rivers. At Hartford it meets the tide, and thence flows, in a crooked channel, into Long Island sound. It is from 80 to 100 rods wide, 130 miles from its mouth.

At its mouth is a bar of sand which considerably obstructs the navigation. Ten feet water at full tides is found on this bar, and the same depth to Middleton: the distance of the bar from this place, as the river runs, is thirty-six miles. Above Middleton are several shoals which stretch quite across the river: only six feet water is found on the shoal at high tide, and here the tide ebbs and flows but about eight inches. About three miles below Middleton the river is contracted to about 40 rods in breadth by two high mountains: almost every where else the banks are low, and spread into fine extensive meadows: in the spring floods, which generally happen in May, these meadows are covered with water. At Hartford, the water sometimes rises twenty feet above the common surface of the river, and having all to pass through the above-mentioned freight, it is sometimes two or three weeks before it returns to its usual bed. These floods add nothing to the depth of water on the bar at the mouth of the river; this bar lying too far off in the sound to be affected by them.

On this beautiful river, whose banks are settled almost to its source, are many pleasant, neat, well-built towns. On its western bank, from its mouth northward, are the

the towns of Saybrook, Haddam, Middleton, Weathersfield, Hartford, Windsor, and Suffield. On its eastern bank, as you ascend the river, are Lyme, East Haddam, Glastenbury, East Hartford, East Windsor, and Enfield.

This river is navigable to Hartford, upwards of fifty miles from its mouth, and the produce of the country for two hundred miles above is brought thither in boats: the boats which are used in this business are flat-bottomed, long and narrow, for the convenience of going up stream, and of so light a make as to be portable in carts: they are taken out of the river at three different carrying places, all of which make fifteen miles. These obstructions will in a few years, it is probable, be all removed.

Sturgeon, salmon, and shad, are caught in plenty in their season, from the mouth of the river upwards, excepting sturgeon, which do not ascend the upper falls; besides a variety of small fish, such as pike, carp, perch, &c.

From this river were employed, in 1789, three brigs of one hundred and eighty tons each, in the European trade; and about sixty sail, from sixty to one hundred and fifty tons, in the West India trade; besides a few fishermen, and forty or fifty coasting vessels.

One branch of the Housatonic* rises in Lanesborough, the other in Windsor, both in Berkshire county, in Massachusetts: it passes through a number of pleasant towns, and empties into the sound between Stratford and Milford: it is navigable twelve miles to Derby. A bar of shells, at its mouth, obstructs its navigation for large vessels. In this river, between Salisbury and Canaan, is a cataract, where the water of the whole river, which is 150 yards wide, falls about sixty feet perpendicular, in a perfect white sheet, exhibiting a scene exceedingly grand and beautiful.

Naugatuk is a small river which rises in Torrington, and empties into the Housatonic at Derby.

The Thames empties into Long Island sound at New London: it is navigable fourteen miles to Norwich Landing: here it loses its name, and branches into Shetucket on the east, and Norwich or Little river on the west. The city of Norwich stands on the tongue of land between these rivers. Little river, about a mile from its mouth, has a remarkable and very romantic cataract. A rock, ten or twelve feet in perpendicular height, extends quite across the channel of the river: over this the whole river pitches, in one entire sheet, upon a bed of rocks below. Here the river is compressed into a very narrow channel between two craggy cliffs, one of which towers to a considerable height: the channel descends gradually, is very crooked, and covered with pointed rocks. Upon these the water swiftly tumbles, foaming with the most violent agitation, fifteen or twenty rods, into a broad basin which spreads before it. At the bottom of the perpendicular falls the rocks are curiously excavated by the constant pouring of the water: some of the cavities, which are all of a circular form, are five or six feet deep. The smoothness of the water above its descent—the regularity and beauty of the perpendicular fall—the tremendous roughness of the other, and the craggy, towering cliff which impends the whole, present to the view of the spectator a scene indescribably delightful and majestic. On this river are some of the finest mill seats in New England; and those immediately below the falls, occupied by Lathrop's mills, are, perhaps, not exceeded by any in the world. Across the mouth of this river is a broad, commodious bridge, in the form of a wharf, built at a great expence.

Shetucket river, the other branch of the Thames, four miles from its mouth, receives Quinnabogue, which has its source in Brimfield in Massachusetts; thence passing through Sturbridge and Dudley in Massachusetts, it crosses into Connecticut, and divide

* An Indian name, signifying *Over the Mountain*.

divides Pomfret from Killingly, Canterbury from Plainfield, and Lisbon from Preston, and then mingles with the Shetucket. In passing through this hilly country, it tumbles over many falls, two of which, one in Thompson, the other in Brooklyn, are thirty feet each, and affords a vast number of fine mill seats. In its course it receives a great number of tributary streams, the principal of which are Muddy Brook, and Five Mile river.

Shetucket river is formed by the junction of Willamantick and Mount Hope rivers, which unite between Windham and Lebanon. In Lisbon it receives Little river; and at a little distance farther the Quinnabogue, and empties as above.

These rivers are fed by numberless brooks from every part of the country. At the mouth of Shetucket, is a bridge of timber 124 feet in length, supported at each end by pillars, and held up in the middle by braces on the top, in the nature of an arch.

Paukatuck river is an inconsiderable stream which heads in Stonington, and empties into Stonington harbour. It forms part of the dividing line between Connecticut and Rhode Island.

East, or North Haven river, rises in Southington, not far from a bend in Farmington river, and passing through Wallingford and North Haven, falls into New Haven harbour. It has been meditated to connect the source of this river with Farmington river.

East and West rivers are inconsiderable streams, bounding the city of New Haven on the east and west.

West of the Housatonic, are a number of small rivers which fall into the sound. Among these is Byram river, noticeable only as forming a part of the boundary between New York and Connecticut. But neither this, nor any of the others, are considerable enough to merit particular descriptions.

HARBOURS.] The two principal harbours are at New London and New Haven. The former opens to the south. From the light-house, which stands at the mouth of the harbour, to the town, is about three miles; the breadth is three quarters of a mile, and in some places more. The harbour has from five to six fathom water—a clear bottom—tough, ooze, and as far as one mile above the town is entirely secure, and commodious for large ships.

New Haven harbour is greatly inferior to that of New London. It is a bay which sets up northerly from the sound, about four miles. Its entrance is about half a mile wide. It has very good anchorage, and two and an half fathom at low water, and three fathom and four feet at common tides.

About a mile from the town, on the channel, a pier is erected, at which vessels of such size as cannot come up to the wharf, lade and unlade. A sum of money has lately been raised by lottery for the purpose of extending the long wharf to this pier, and the work is partly accomplished. When completed, this wharf will be the longest in the United States, and will be a vast benefit to the town.

The whole of the sea coast is indented with harbours, many of which are safe and commodious, but are not sufficiently used to merit a description.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] Connecticut, though subject to the extremes of heat and cold in their seasons, and to frequent sudden changes, is very healthful. The north-west winds, in the winter season, are often extremely severe and piercing, occasioned by the great body of snow which lies concealed from the dissolving influence of the sun, in the immense forests north and north-west. The clear and serene temperature of the sky, however, makes amends for the severity of the weather, and is favourable to health and longevity. Connecticut is generally broken land, made

up of mountains, hills, and vallies; and is exceedingly well watered. Some small parts of it are thin and barren. It lies in the fifth and sixth northern climates, and has a strong fertile soil. Its principal productions are Indian corn, rye, wheat in many parts of the State, oats, and barley, which are heavy and good, and of late, buck wheat—flax in large quantities—some hemp, potatoes of several kinds, pumpkins, turnips, peas, beans, &c. &c. Fruits of all kinds, which are common to the climate. The soil is very well calculated for pasture and mowing, which enables the farmers to feed large numbers of neat cattle and horses. Actual calculation has evinced, that any given quantity of the best mowing land in Connecticut produces about twice as much clear profit, as the same quantity of the best wheat land in the State of New York. Many farmers, in the eastern part of the State, have lately found their advantage in raising mules, which are carried from the ports of Norwich and New London to the West India islands, and yield a handsome profit. The beef, pork, butter, and cheese of Connecticut, are equal to any in the world.

TRADE.] The trade of Connecticut is principally with the West India islands, and is carried on in vessels from sixty to an hundred and forty tons. The exports consist of horses, mules, oxen, oak staves, hoops, pine boards, oak plank, beans, Indian corn, fish, beef, pork, &c. Horses, live cattle and lumber, are permitted in the Dutch, Danish, and French ports.

Connecticut has a large number of coasting vessels employed in carrying the produce of the State to other States. To Rhode Island, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, they carry pork, wheat, corn, and rye; to North and South Carolinas and Georgia, butter, cheese, salted beef, cyder, apples, potatoes, hay, &c. and receive in return, rice, indigo, and money. But as New York is nearer, and the state of the markets always well known, much of the produce of Connecticut, especially of the western parts, is carried there; particularly pot and pearl ash, flax seed, beef, pork, cheese, and butter, in large quantities. Most of the produce of Connecticut river from the parts of Massachusetts, New Hampshire, and Vermont, as well as of Connecticut, which are adjacent, goes to the same market. Considerable quantities of the produce of the eastern parts of the State are marketed at Boston and Providence.

The value of the whole exported produce and commodities from this State, before the year 1774, was then estimated at about 200,000*l.* lawful money, annually. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, the amount of foreign exports from this State was 710,340 dollars—besides articles carried to different parts of the United States to a great amount. This State owns and employs in the foreign and coasting trade, 32,867 tons of shipping.

MANUFACTURES.] The farmers in Connecticut and their families are mostly clothed in plain, decent, homespun cloth. The linens and woollens are manufactured in the family way; and although they are generally of a coarser kind they are of a stronger texture, and much more durable than those imported from France and Great Britain. Many of their cloths are fine and handsome.

A woollen manufactory has been established at Hartford. The legislature of the State have encouraged it, and it bids fair to grow into importance. Mr. Chittendon, of New Haven, has invented a useful machine for bending and cutting card teeth. This machine is put in motion by a manderil twelve inches in length, and one inch in diameter. Connected with the manderil are six parts of the machine, independent of each other; the first introduces a certain length of wire into the chops of the *corone*; the second, shuts the chops and holds fast the wire in the middle until it is finished; the third, cuts off the wire; the fourth, doubles the tooth in proper form; the fifth,

makes the last bend ; and the sixth, delivers the finished tooth from the machine. The manderil is moved by a band wheel, five feet in diameter, turned by a crank. One revolution of the manderil makes one tooth ; ten are made in a second, 36,000 in an hour. With one machine like this, teeth enough might be made to fill cards sufficient for all the manufacturers in New England. In New Haven are linen and button manufactories, which flourish. In Hartford are glass works, a snuff and powder mill, and iron works, and a slitting mill. Iron works are established also at Salisbury, Norwich, and other parts of the State. At Stafford is a furnace at which are made large quantities of hollow ware, and other ironmongery, sufficient to supply the whole State. Paper is manufactured at Norwich, Hartford, New Haven, and in Litchfield county. Nails, of every size, are made in almost every town and village in Connecticut ; so that considerable quantities can be exported to the neighbouring States, and at a better rate than they can be had from Europe. Ironmongery, hats, candles, leather, shoes, and boots, are manufactured in this State. Oil mills, of a new and very ingenious construction, have been erected in several parts of the State. A duck manufactory has been established at Stratford, and it is said is doing well.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] Connecticut is the most populous, in proportion to its extent, of any of the Thirteen States. It is laid out in small farms from fifty to three or four hundred acres each, which are held by the farmers in fee simple ; and are generally cultivated as well as the nature of the soil will admit. The State is chequered with innumerable roads or highways crossing each other in every direction. A traveller in any of these roads, even in the most unsettled parts of the State, will seldom pass more than two or three miles without finding a house or cottage, and a farm under such improvements, as to afford the necessaries for the support of a family. The whole State resembles a well-cultivated garden, which, with that degree of industry that is necessary to happiness, produces the necessaries and conveniencies of life in great plenty.

In 1756 the number of inhabitants in Connecticut was 130,611. In 1774, there were 197,856 souls. In eighteen years the increase was 67,245. From 1774 to 1782, the increase was but 11,294 persons. This comparatively small increase of inhabitants may be satisfactorily accounted for from the destruction of the war, and the numerous emigrations to Vermont, the western parts of New Hampshire, New York, and the other States.

The inhabitants are almost entirely of English descent. There are no Dutch, French, or Germans, and very few Scotch or Irish people in any part of the State.

In addition to what has been already said under New England it may be observed, that the people of Connecticut are remarkably fond of having all their disputes, even those of the most trivial kind, settled *according to law*. The prevalence of this litigious spirit affords employment and support for a numerous body of lawyers. The number of actions entered annually upon the several dockets in the State justifies the above observations. That party spirit, however, which is the bane of political happiness, has not raged with such violence in this State as in Massachusetts and Rhode Island. Public proceedings have been conducted generally, and especially of late, with much calmness and candour. The people are well informed in regard to their rights, and judicious in the methods they adopt to secure them. The State enjoys a great share of political tranquillity.

The clergy, who are numerous, and, as a body, very respectable, have hitherto preserved a kind of aristocratical balance in the very democratical government of the State ; which has happily operated as a check upon the overbearing spirit of republicanism.

canical. It has been lamented that the unhappy religious disputes which have too much prevailed among some of the clergy, and an inattention to the qualifications of those who have been admitted to the sacred office, have, heretofore, considerably diminished their influence. It is a pleasing circumstance that the rage for theological disputation is abating, and greater strictness is observed in the admission of candidates to the ministry. Their influence is on the increase, and it is no doubt to be attributed, in part, to their increasing influence, that an evident reformation in the manners of the people of this State has taken place since the peace.

RELIGION.] Such as is happily adapted to a republican government. As to the mode of exercising church government and discipline, it might not improperly be called a republican religion. Each church has a separate jurisdiction, and claims authority to choose their own minister, to exercise judgement and to enjoy gospel ordinances within itself. The churches, however, are not independent of each other; they are associated for mutual benefit and convenience. The associations have power to license candidates for the ministry, to consult for the general welfare, and to recommend measures to be adopted by the churches, but have no authority to enforce them. When disputes arise in churches, councils are called by the parties to settle them; but their power is only advisory. There are eleven associations in the State, and they meet twice in a year. These are all combined in one general association, who meet annually.

All religions that are consistent with the peace of society, are tolerated in Connecticut; and a spirit of liberality and catholicism is increasing. There are very few religious sects in this State. The bulk of the people are Congregationalists. Besides these there are Episcopalians and Baptists; and formerly there was a society of Sandimanians at New Haven; but they are now reduced to a very small number. The Episcopal churches are respectable, and are under the superintendence of a bishop.

DAMAGES SUSTAINED IN THE LATE WAR.] After the establishment of the peace in 1783, a number of gentlemen were appointed by the General Assembly to estimate the damages done by the British troops in the several towns which they ravaged. The following is the result of their inquiries:

			Amount of losses.	
New London (burnt by Benedict Arnold, September 6, 1781,)			£. 145,788	15 6
Groton,	ditto	ditto	23,217	6 0
Scattering towns,	ditto	ditto	9,806	9 2
			178,812	10 8
Norwalk, (burnt by the British, 1779)			34,867	9 2
----- Confiscated property and other losses			2,077	0 0
			36,944	9 2
Greenwich			6,365	11 8
----- Losses of men not on oath			369	17 7
			6,735	9 3
Fairfield, (burnt 1779)			40,809	2 10

	Amount of losses.
New Haven, ravaged by Governor Tryon, July 1779	£. 24,893 7 6
East Haven, ditto ditto	4,882 16 4
West Haven, ditto ditto	474 0 3
Other losses not before computed	586 0 1
	30,836 4 2

Amount of the losses in the whole State, in money, valued as
in 1774, - - - - -

£. 294,235 16 1

The foregoing estimate includes merchandize and public buildings. Exclusive of these, the losses are estimated at £. 167,000. To compensate the sufferers, the General Court, in May 1792, granted them 500,000 acres of the western part of the reserved lands of Connecticut, which lie west of Pennsylvania.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a great number of very pleasant towns, both maritime and inland, in Connecticut. It contains five cities, incorporated with extensive jurisdiction in civil causes. Two of these, Hartford and Newhaven, are capitals of the State. The General Assembly is holden at the former in May, and at the latter in October, annually.

HARTFORD (city) is situated at the head of navigation on the west side of Connecticut river, about fifty miles from its entrance into the sound. Its buildings are a state house, two churches for Congregationalists, a distillery, besides upwards of 300 dwelling houses, a number of which are handsomely built with brick.

The town is divided by a small river, with high romantic banks. Over this river is a bridge connecting the two divisions of the town. Hartford is advantageously situated for trade, has a very fine back country, enters largely into the manufacturing business, and is a rich, flourishing, commercial town. A bank has lately been established in this city.

NEW HAVEN (city) lies round the head of a bay, which makes up about four miles north from the sound. It covers part of a large plain, which is circumscribed on three sides by high hills or mountains. Two small rivers bound the city east and west. The town was originally laid out in squares of sixty rods. Many of the squares have been divided by cross streets. Four streets run north-west and south-east, these are crossed by others at right angles. Near the center of the city is the public square, on and around which are the public buildings, which are, a state house, college, and chapel, three churches for Congregationalists and one for Episcopalians. These are all handsome and commodious buildings. The college, chapel, state house, and one of the churches, are of brick. The public square is encircled with rows of trees, which render it both convenient and delightful. Its beauty, however, is greatly diminished by the burial ground, and several of the public buildings, which occupy a considerable part of it.

Many of the streets are ornamented with two rows of trees, one on each side, which gives the city a rural appearance. The prospect from the steeples is greatly variegated and extremely beautiful. There are about 500 dwelling houses in the city, principally of wood, and well built, and some of them elegant. The streets are sandy, but neat and cleanly. Within the limits of the city are 4000 souls. About one in seventy die annually; this proves the healthfulness of its climate. Indeed, as to pleasantness of situation and salubrity of air, New Haven is not exceeded by any city in America.

America. It carries on a considerable trade with New York and the West India Islands, and several kinds of manufactures, and is flourishing.

NEW LONDON (city) stands on the west side of the river Thames, near its entrance into the sound, in latitude $41^{\circ} 25'$. It has two places for public worship, one for Episcopalians, and one for Congregationalists; about 300 dwelling-houses, and 4600 inhabitants. Its harbour is the best in Connecticut. It is defended by Fort Trumbull and Fort Griswold, the one in New London, the other in Groton. A considerable part of the town was burnt by Benedict Arnold in 1781. It has since been rebuilt.

NORWICH (city) stands at the head of Thames river, 14 miles north from New London. It is a commercial city, has a rich and extensive back country, and avails itself of its natural advantages at the head of navigation. Its situation upon a river, which affords a great number of convenient seats for mills and water-machines of all kinds, render it very eligible in a manufactural view.

The inhabitants are not neglectful of the advantages which nature has so liberally given them. They manufacture paper of all kinds, stockings, clocks and watches, chaises, buttons, stone and earthen-ware, wire, oil, chocolate, bells, anchors, and all kinds of forge work. The city contains about 450 dwelling-houses, a court-house, and two churches for Congregationalists, and one for Episcopalians, and about 3000 inhabitants. The city is in three detached, compact divisions; viz. Chelsea, at the landing, the town, and Bean Hill; in the latter division is an academy; and in the town is a school, supported by a donation from Dr. Daniel Lathrop, deceased. The courts of law are held alternately at New London and Norwich.

MIDDLETON (city) is pleasantly situated on the western bank of Connecticut river, fifteen miles south of Hartford. It is the principal town in Middlesex county—has about 300 houses—a court-house—one church for Congregationalists—one for Episcopalians—a naval office—and carries on a large and increasing trade.

Four miles south of Hartford is WETHERSFIELD, a very pleasant town, of between two and three hundred houses, situated on a fine soil, with an elegant brick church for Congregationalists. A fair is held here twice a year. This town is noted for raising onions.

Windfor, Farmington, Litchfield, Milford, Stratford, Fairfield, Guilford, Stamford, Windham, Suffield, and Enfield, are all considerable and very pleasant towns.

CURIOSITIES.] Two miles west of New Haven is a mountain, on the top of which is a cave, remarkable for having been the residence of Generals Whaley and Goffe, two of the judges of Charles I. who was beheaded. They arrived at Boston, July 1660, and came to New Haven the following year, and retired, and concealed themselves behind West Mountain, three miles from New Haven. They soon after removed to Milford, where they lived concealed until October, 1664, when they returned to New Haven, and immediately proceeded to Hadley, where they remained concealed for about ten years, in which time Whaley died, and Goffe soon after fled. In 1665, John Dixwell, Esq. another of the king's judges, visited them while at Hadley, and afterwards proceeded to New Haven, where he lived many years, and was known by the name of John Davis. Here he died, and was buried in the public burying-place, where his grave-stone is standing to this day, with this inscription:—
“J. D. Esq. deceased, March 18th, in the 82d year of his age, 1688.”

In the town of Pomfret is a cave, rendered remarkable by the humorous adventure of General Putnam.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] In no part of the world is the education of all ranks of people more attended to than in Connecticut. Almost every town in the State is divided into districts, and each district has a public school kept in it a greater or less part of every year. Somewhat more than one third of the monies arising from a tax on the polls and rateable estate of the inhabitants is appropriated to the support of schools in the several towns, for the education of children and youth. The law directs that a grammar-school shall be kept in every county town throughout the State.

There is a grammar-school at Hartford, and another at New Haven, supported by a donation of Governor Hopkins. This venerable and benevolent gentleman, in his last will, dated 1657, left in the hands of Theophilus Eaton, Esq. and three others, a legacy of 1324l. "as an encouragement, in these foreign plantations, of breeding up hopeful youths, both at the grammar-school and college." In 1664, this legacy was equally divided between New Haven and Hartford; and grammar-schools were erected, which have been supported ever since.

Academies have been established at Greenfield, Plainfield, Norwich, Windham, and Pomfret, some of which are flourishing.

YALE COLLEGE was founded in 1700, and remained at Killingworth until 1707—then at Saybrook until 1716, when it was removed and fixed at New Haven. Among its principal benefactors was Governor Yale, in honour of whom, in 1718, it was named YALE COLLEGE. Its first building was erected in 1717, being 170 feet in length, and 22 in breadth, built of wood. This was taken down in 1782. The present college edifice, which is of brick, was built in 1750, under the direction of the Rev. President Clap, and is 100 feet long, and 40 feet wide, three stories high, and contains thirty-two chambers, and sixty-four studies, convenient for the reception of a hundred students. The college chapel, which is also of brick, was built in 1761, being 50 feet by 40, with a steeple 125 feet high. In this building is the public library, consisting of about 2500 volumes; and the philosophical apparatus, which by a late handsome addition is now as complete as most others in the United States, and contains the machines necessary for exhibiting experiments in the whole course of experimental philosophy and astronomy.

The college museum, to which additions are constantly making, contains many natural curiosities.

This literary institution was incorporated by the general assembly of Connecticut. The first charter of incorporation was granted to eleven ministers, under the denomination of trustees, 1701. The powers of the trustees were enlarged by the additional charter, 1723. And by that of 1745, the trustees were incorporated by the name of "The President and Fellows of Yale College, New Haven." By an act of the General Assembly "for enlarging the powers and increasing the funds of Yale College," passed in May 1792, and accepted by the corporation, the governor, lieutenant-governor, and the six senior assistants in the council of the State, for the time being, are ever hereafter, by virtue of their offices, to be trustees and fellows of the college, in addition to the former corporation. The corporation are empowered to hold estates, continue their succession, make academic laws, elect and constitute all officers of instruction and government usual in universities, and confer all learned degrees. The immediate executive government is in the hands of the president and tutors. The present officers and instructors of the college are, a president, who is also professor of ecclesiastical history, a professor of divinity, and three tutors. The number of students on an average is about 130, divided into four classes. It is worthy of remark, that

as many as five-sixths of those who have received their education at this university, were natives of Connecticut.

The funds of this college received a very liberal addition by a grant of the General Assembly in the act of 1792, before mentioned; which will enable the corporation to erect a new building for the accommodation of the students, to support several new professorships, and to make a handsome addition to the library.

The course of education, in this university, comprehends the whole circle of literature. The three learned languages are taught, together with so much of the sciences as can be communicated in four years.

In May and September, annually, the several classes are critically examined in all their classical studies. As incentives to improvement in composition and oratory, quarterly exercises are appointed by the president and tutors, to be exhibited by the respective classes in rotation. A public commencement is held annually on the second Wednesday in September, which calls together a more numerous and brilliant assembly than are convened by any other anniversary in the State.

About 2200 have received the honours of this university, of whom nearly 760 have been ordained to the work of the gospel ministry.*

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] On the bank of Connecticut river, two miles from Middleton, is a lead mine, which was wrought during the war, at the expense of the State, and was productive. It is too expensive to work in time of peace. Copper mines have been discovered and opened in several parts of the State, but have proved unprofitable, and are much neglected. Iron ore abounds in many parts of the State. Talks of various kinds, white, brown, and chocolate coloured crystals, zink or spelter, a semi-metal, and several other fossils and metals have been found in Connecticut.

MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] All freeholders in the State are required by law to give in lists of their polls and rateable estate,† to persons appointed in the respective towns to receive them, on or before the 20th of August annually. These are valued according to law, arranged in proper order, and sent to the General Assembly annually in May.

The sum total of the list of the polls and rateable estate of the inhabitants of Connecticut, as brought into the General Assembly in May 1787, was as follows:

		£.	s.	d.
Sum total of the single list	-	1,484,901	6	4 $\frac{3}{4}$
Assessments	-	47,790	2	9
One quarter of the four-folds	-	1,176	9	4
Total	-	£.1,533,867	18	5 $\frac{3}{4}$

* Accessus.	Presidents.	Exitus.
A. D.		A. D.
1701	Abraham Pierson,	1707
1719	Timothy Cutler, S. T. D.	1722
1726	Elisha Williams	1739
1739	Thomas Clap	1766
1777	Ezra Stiles, S. T. D. L. L. D.	

† In Connecticut, horses, horned cattle, cultivated and uncultivated land, houses, shipping, all sorts of riding-carriages, clocks and watches, silver plate and money at interest, are rateable estate. All males between sixteen and seventy years of age, unless exempted by law, are subjects of taxation.

On

On this sum taxes are levied so much on the pound, according to the sum proposed to be raised. A tax of 2d. on a pound would raise 12,782l. 4s.

The ordinary annual expences of the government before the war amounted to near 4000l. sterling, exclusive of that which was appropriated to the support of schools. The expences have since increased.

MINERAL SPRINGS.] At Stafford is a medicinal spring, which is said to be a sovereign remedy for scorbutic, cutaneous, and other disorders.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The constitution of Connecticut is founded on their charter, which was granted by Charles II. in 1662, and on a law of the State. Contented with this form of government, the people have not been disposed to run the hazard of framing a new constitution since the declaration of independence.

Agreeable to this charter, the supreme legislative authority of the State is vested in a governor, lieutenant-governor, twelve assistants or counsellors, and the representatives of the people, styled the *General Assembly*. The governor, lieutenant-governor, and assistants, are annually chosen by the freemen, in the month of May. The representatives (their number not to exceed two from each town) are chosen by the freemen twice a year, to attend the two annual sessions, on the second Thursdays in May and October. This assembly has power to erect judicatories for the trial of causes, civil and criminal, and to ordain and establish laws for settling the forms and ceremonies of government. By these laws the General Assembly is divided into two branches, called the upper and lower houses. The upper house is composed of the governor, lieutenant-governor, and assistants. The lower house, of the representatives of the people. No law can pass without the concurrence of both houses. The judges of the superior court hold their offices during the pleasure of the General Assembly. The judges of the county courts, and justices, are annually appointed. Sheriffs are appointed by the governor and council, without limitation of time. The governor is captain-general of the militia, the lieutenant-governor lieutenant-general. All other military officers are appointed by the assembly, and commissioned by the governor.

The mode of electing the governor, lieutenant-governor, assistants, treasurer, and secretary, is as follows: the freemen in the several towns meet on the Monday next after the first Tuesday in April annually, and give in their votes for the persons they choose for the said offices respectively, with their names written on a piece of paper, which are received and sealed up by a constable in open meeting, the votes for each office by themselves, with the name of the town and office written on the outside. These votes, thus sealed, are sent to the General Assembly in May, and there counted by a committee from both houses. All freemen are eligible to any office in government. In choosing assistants, twenty persons are nominated, by the vote of each freeman, at the freeman's meeting for choosing representatives in September annually. These votes are sealed up, and sent to the General Assembly in October, and are there counted by a committee of both houses, and the twenty persons who have the most votes stand in nomination; out of which number, the twelve who have the greatest number of votes, given by the freemen at their meeting in April, are in May declared assistants in the manner above mentioned. The qualifications of freemen are, quiet and peaceable behaviour, a civil conversation, and freehold estate to the value of forty shillings per annum, or forty pounds personal estate in the list, certified by the selectmen of the town; it is necessary, also, that they take the oath of fidelity to the State. Their names are enrolled in the town-clerk's office, and they continue free-

men

men for life, unless disfranchised by sentence of the superior court, on conviction of misdemeanor.

The courts are as follow:—The justices of the peace, of whom a number are annually appointed in each town by the General Assembly, have authority to hear and determine civil actions, where the demand does not exceed four pounds. If the demand exceeds forty shillings, an appeal to the county is allowed. They have cognizance of small offences, and may punish by fine, not exceeding forty shillings, or whipping, not exceeding ten stripes, or sitting in the stocks. There are eight county-courts in the State, held in the several counties by one judge and four justices of the quorum, who have jurisdiction of all criminal cases arising within their respective counties, where the punishment does not extend to life, limb, or banishment. They have original jurisdiction of all civil actions which exceed the jurisdiction of a justice. Either party may appeal to the superior court, if the demand exceeds 20*l.* except on bonds or notes vouched by two witnesses.

There are several courts of probate in each county, consisting of one judge. The peculiar province of this court is, the probate of wills, granting administration on intestate estates, ordering distribution of them, and appointing guardians for minors, &c. An appeal lies from any decree of this court to the superior court.

The superior court consists of five judges. It has authority in all criminal cases extending to life, limb, or banishment, and other high crimes and misdemeanors, to grant divorces, and to hear and determine all civil actions brought by appeal from the county courts, or the court of probate, and to correct the errors of all inferior courts. This is a circuit-court, and has two stated sessions in each county annually. The superior and county courts try matters of fact by jury, or without, if the parties will agree.

There is a supreme court of errors, consisting of the lieutenant-governor, and the twelve assistants. Their sole business is to determine writs of error, brought on judgements of the superior court, where the error complained of appears on the record. They have two stated sessions annually, viz. on the Tuesdays of the weeks preceding the stated sessions of the General Assembly.

The county court is a court of chancery, empowered to hear and determine cases in equity, where the matter in demand does not exceed one hundred pounds. The superior court has cognizance of all cases, where the demand exceeds that sum. Error may be brought from the county to the superior court, and from the superior court to the supreme court of errors, on judgement in cases of equity as well as of law.

The General Assembly only have power to grant pardons and reprieves—to grant commissions of bankruptcy—or protect the persons and estates of unfortunate debtors.

The common law of England, so far as it is applicable to this country, is considered as the common law of this State. The reports of adjudication in the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and chancery, are read in the courts of this State as authorities; yet the judges do not consider them as conclusively binding, unless founded on solid reasons which will apply in this State, or sanctioned by concurrent adjudications of their own courts.

The feudal system of descents was never adopted in this State. All the real-estate of intestates is divided equally among the children, males and females, except that the eldest son has a double portion. And all estates given in tail, must be given to some person then in being, or to their immediate issue, and shall become fee simple estates

to the issue of the first donee in tail. The widow of an intestate is entitled to a third part of the personal estate for ever, and to her dower, or third part of the houses and lands belonging to the intestate at the time of his death, during her life.

PRACTICE OF LAW.] The practice of law in this State has more simplicity, but less precision, than in England. Assistants and judges are empowered to issue writs through the State, and justices, through their respective counties. In these writs the substance of the complaints or the declarations must be contained, and if neither of the parties shew good reason for delay, the causes are heard and determined the same term to which the writs are returnable. Few of the fictions of law so common in the English practice, are known in this State. The plaintiff always has his election to attach or summon the defendant. Attornies are admitted and qualified by the county courts. Previous to their admission to the bar, they must study two years with a practising attorney in the State, if they have had a college education, and three years if they have not; their morals must be good, and their characters unblemished, and they must sustain an examination by the attornies of the court of the county where they are admitted, and be by them recommended to the court. When admitted to the county court, they can practise, without other qualifications, in any court in the State. There are upon an average, about fifteen attornies to each county, one hundred and twenty in the State; a very great proportion for the real exigencies of the people. Yet from the litigious spirit of the citizens, the most of them find employment and support. There is no attorney general, but there is one attorney to the State in each county.

NEW INVENTIONS.] Early in the war, Mr. David Bushnel, of Saybrook, invented a machine for *submarine* navigation, altogether different from any thing hitherto devised by the art of man. This machine was so constructed as that it could be rowed horizontally, at any given depth, under water, and could be raised or depressed at pleasure. To this machine, called the *American Turtle*, was attached a magazine of powder, which was intended to be fastened under the bottom of a ship, with a driving screw, in such a way as that the same stroke which disengaged it from the machine should put the internal clock work in motion. This being done, the ordinary operation of a gunlock, at the distance of half an hour, or any determinate time, would cause the powder to explode and leave the effects to the common laws of nature. The simplicity, yet combination discovered in the mechanism of this wonderful machine, have been acknowledged by those skilled in physics, and particularly hydraulics, to be not less ingenious than novel. Mr. Bushnel invented several other curious machines for the annoyance of the British shipping, but from accidents, not militating against the philosophical principles, on which their success depended, they but partially succeeded. He destroyed a vessel in the charge of Commodore Symmonds. One of his kegs also demolished a vessel near the Long Island shore. About Christmas 1777, he committed to the Delaware river a number of kegs, destined to fall among the British fleet at Philadelphia; but this squadron of kegs, having been separated and retarded by the ice, demolished but a single boat. This catastrophe, however, produced an alarm, unprecedented in its nature and degree; which has been so happily described by the late Hon. Francis Hopkinson, in a song, titled "The Battle of the Kegs,"* that the event it celebrates will not be forgotten, so long as mankind shall continue to be delighted with works of humour and taste.

Mr. Hanks, of Litchfield, has invented a method of winding up clocks by means of air or wind only, which is ingenious, and practised upon in New York and other places.

* See Hopkinson's Works, lately published in Philadelphia.

Mr. Culver, of Norwich, has constructed a Dock Drudge, which is a boat for clearing docks and removing bars in rivers; a very ingenious and useful machine. Its good effects have already been experienced in the navigation of the river Thames, the channel of which has been considerably deepened. This machine will, no doubt, be productive of very great advantages to navigation throughout the United States.

The Rev. Joseph Badger, while a member of Yale College in 1785, constructed an ingenious *planetarium*, (without ever having seen one of the kind) which is deposited in the library of that university.

HISTORY.] As there is no particular history of this State, to which the reader can be referred, the author will, no doubt, be indulged in so far deviating from his general plan, as to relate the following particulars, collected with great pains, relative to the settlement and progress of things in this State.

The present territory of Connecticut, at the time of the first arrival of the English, was possessed by the Pequot, the Mohegan, Podunk, and many other smaller tribes of Indians.

The Pequots were numerous and warlike. Their country extended along the sea coast from Paukatuck, to Connecticut river. About the year 1630, this powerful tribe extended their conquests over a considerable part of Connecticut, over all Long Island and part of Narraganset. SASSACUS, who was the grand monarch of the whole country, was king of this nation. The seat of his dominion was at New London; the ancient Indian name of which was Pequot.

The Mohegans were a numerous tribe, and their territory extensive. Their ancient claim comprehended most of New London county, almost the whole of the county of Windham, and a part of the counties of Tolland and Hartford. UNCUS, distinguished for his friendship to the English, was the Sachem of this tribe.

The Podunks inhabited East Hartford, and the circumjacent country. The first sachem of this tribe, of whom the English had any knowledge, was Tatauinioo. He was able to bring into the field more than 200 fighting men.

The first grant of Connecticut was made, by the Plymouth council, to the Earl of Warwick, in 1630, and confirmed by his Majesty in council the same year. This grant comprehended "all that part of New England which lies west from Narraganset river, 120 miles on the sea coast, from thence, in latitude and breadth aforesaid, to the South Sea." The year following, the Earl assigned this grant to Lord Say and Seal, Lord Brook, and nine others.

No English settlements were attempted in Connecticut until the year 1633, when a number of Indian traders, having purchased of Zequasson and Natawanut, two principal sachems, a tract of land at the mouth of Little river in Windsor, built a house and fortified it, and ever after maintained their right of soil upon the river.

The same year, a little before the arrival of the English, a company of Dutch traders came to Hartford, and built a house which they called the *Hirfe of Good Hope*, and erected a small fort, in which they planted two cannon. The remains of this settlement are still visible on the bank of Connecticut river. This was the only settlement of the Dutch in Connecticut in these ancient times. The Dutch, and after them the province of New York, for a long time claimed as far east as the western bank of Connecticut river. It belongs to the professed historian to prove or disprove the justice of this claim. Douglass says, "The partition line between New York and Connecticut, as established December 1, 1664, run from the mouth of Memoroneck river, (a little

west from Byram river,) N. N. W. and was the *ancient easterly limits of New York*, until November 23, 1683, when the line was run nearly the same as it is now settled."*

In 1634, Lord Say and Seal, &c. sent over a small number of men, who built a fort at Saybrook, and held a treaty with the Pequot Indians, who in a formal manner gave to the English their right to Connecticut river and the adjacent country.

In 1635, the Plymouth council granted to the Duke of Hamilton, all lands between Narraganset and Connecticut rivers, and back into the country as far as Massachusetts south line. This covered a part of the Earl of Warwick's patent, and occasioned some disputes in the colony. There were several attempts to revive the Hamilton claim, but were never prosecuted.

In October of this year, about sixty persons, from Newtown, Dorchester, and Watertown, in Massachusetts, came and settled at Hartford, Wethersfield, and Windsor in Connecticut; and the June following the famous Mr. Hooker, and his company, came and settled at Hartford, and was a friend and father to the colony till his death.

The first court held in Connecticut was at Hartford, April 26th, 1636; and the next year was distinguished by the war with the Pequots.

The English obtained the country east of the Dutch settlements, by right of conquest. The pursuit of the Indians led to an acquaintance with the lands on the sea coast, from Saybrook to Fairfield. It was reported to be a very fine country. This favourable report induced Messrs. Eaton and Hopkins, two very respectable London merchants, and Mr. Davenport, a man of distinguished piety and abilities, with their company, who arrived this year (1637) from London, to think of this part of the country as the place of their settlement. Their friends in Massachusetts, sorry to part with so valuable a company, dissuaded them from their purpose. Influenced, however, by the promising prospects which the country afforded, and flattering themselves that they should be out of the jurisdiction of a general governor, with which the country was from time to time threatened, they determined to proceed. Accordingly in March 1638, with the consent of their friends on Connecticut river, they settled at New Haven, and laid the foundation of a flourishing colony, of which Quinipiak, now New Haven, was the chief town. The first public worship in this new plantation was attended on Lord's day April 18th, 1638, under a large spreading oak. The Rev. Mr. Davenport preached from Matt. iii. 1. on the temptations of the wilderness. Both colonies, by voluntary compact, formed themselves into distinct commonwealths and remained so until their union in 1665.

In 1639, the three towns on Connecticut river, already mentioned, finding themselves without the limits of any jurisdiction, formed themselves into a body politic, and agreed upon articles of civil government. These articles were the foundation of Connecticut charter, which was granted in 1662. The substance of the articles, so far as they respect the holding of assemblies, the time and manner of electing magistrates and other civil officers, (except that in the old confederation no person was to be chosen governor more than once in two years) and the extent of legislative powers, was transferred into, and established in said charter.

The first church was gathered in New Haven this year, and consisted of seven members. These were chosen by the settlers, after Mr. Davenport had preached from the words of Solomon, "Wisdom hath builded her house, she hath hewed out her seven pillars." These men were, indeed, the pillars of the church, to whom the rest were added as they became qualified. They were also the court to try all civil actions.

The

The first settlers in New Haven had all things in common; all purchases were made in the name and for the use of the whole plantation, and the lands were apportioned out to each family, according to their number and original stock.

At their first election, in October 1639, Mr. Theophilus Eaton was chosen governor for the first year. Their elections, by agreement, were to be annual, and the word of God their only rule in conducting the affairs of government in the plantation.

In 1643, articles of confederation between the four New England colonies were unanimously adopted by the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut.

The general court of New Haven, this year established it as a fundamental article not to be disputed, That none be admitted as free burgessees but church members, and that none but such should vote at elections. They also ordained, That each town choose from among themselves judges (church members) to be a court, to have cognizance of all civil actions not exceeding twenty pounds; and of criminal cases, where the punishment was fitting in the stocks, whipping, and fining not exceeding five pounds. There was liberty of appeal from this court to the court of magistrates. The court of magistrates consisted of all the magistrates throughout the colony, who were to meet twice a year, at New Haven, for the trial of all capital causes. Six made a quorum.

The general court was to consist of the governor, deputy-governor, magistrates, and two representatives from each town. The annual election of officers of government was at this time established, and has ever since continued.

The unsettled state of the colony had hitherto prevented their establishing a code of laws. To supply this defect, the general court ordered, "That the judicial laws of God as they were delivered to Moses, and as they are a fence to the moral, being neither typical nor ceremonial, nor having any reference to Canaan, shall be accounted of moral equity and generally bind all offenders, and be a rule to all the courts in this jurisdiction in their proceedings against offenders, until they be branched out into particulars hereafter."

About this time a war broke out between the Mohegan and Narraganset Indians. A personal quarrel between Onkus, sachem of Mohegan, and Sequeffon, sachem of Connecticut, was the foundation of the war.*

In consideration of the success and increase of the New England colonies, and that they had been of *no charge* to the nation, and in prospect of their being in future very serviceable to it, the English parliament, March 10th, 1643, granted them an exemption from all customs, subsidies, and other duties, until further order.

In 1644, the Connecticut adventurers purchased of Mr. Fenwick, agent for Lord Say and Seal, and Lord Brook, their right to the colony of Connecticut, for 1600*l*.

The colony of Connecticut expressed their disapprobation of the use of tobacco, in an act of their General Assembly at Hartford, in 1647, wherein it was ordered, "That no person under the age of twenty years, nor any other that hath already accustomed himself to the use thereof, shall take any tobacco, until he shall have brought a certificate, from under the hand of some who are approved for knowledge and skill in physic, that it is useful for him: and also that he hath received a license from the court for the same. All others who had addicted themselves to the use of tobacco were, by the same court, prohibited taking it in any company, or at their labours, or on their travels, unless they were ten miles at least from any house, or more than once a day, though not in company, on pain of a fine of *six pence* for each time; to be proved by one substantial evidence. The constable in each town to make presentment of such transgressions

* See Winthrop's Journal, P. 303, 305.

transgressions to the particular court, and upon conviction the fine to be paid without gainstaying."

Massachusetts and New Haven colonies were more cruel towards the Quakers than either Connecticut or Plymouth. Of the four, Connecticut was the most moderate. The general court of New Haven, 1658, passed a severe law against the Quakers. They introduced their law, which was copied from the act of the commissioners of the colonies, with this preamble :

"Whereas there is a cursed sect of heretics lately sprung up in the world, commonly called Quakers, who take upon them that they are immediately sent from God, and infallibly assisted by the Spirit, who yet speak and write blasphemous opinions, despise government, and the order of God in church and commonwealth, speaking evil of dignities, &c.

Ordered—that whosoever shall bring, or cause to be brought, any known Quaker or Quakers, or other blasphemous heretics, shall forfeit the sum of 5*l*. Also,

If a Quaker come into this jurisdiction on civil business, the time of his stay shall be limited by the civil authority, and he shall not use any means to corrupt or seduce others. On his first arrival, he shall appear before a magistrate, and from him receive license to pass on his business; and (for the better prevention of hurt to the people) have one or more to attend upon him at their charge, &c. The penalties in case of disobedience were whipping, imprisonment, labour, and a deprivation of all converse with any person."

For the second offence the person was to be branded in the hand with the letter H—to suffer imprisonment—and be put to labour. For the third, to be branded in the other hand, imprisoned, &c. as before. For the fourth, the offender was to have his tongue bored through with a red hot iron—imprisoned—and kept to labour, until sent away at their own charge.

Any person who should attempt to defend the sentiments of the Quakers, was, for the third offence, to be sentenced to banishment.

Had the pious framers of these laws paid a due attention to the excellent advice of that sagacious doctor of the law, Gamaliel, they would, perhaps, have been prevented from the adoption of such severe and unjustifiable measures. This wise man, when his countrymen were about to be outrageous in persecuting the apostles, addressed them in the following words, which merit to be engraved in letters of gold ; "*Refrain from these men, and let them alone ; for if this council or this work be of men, it will come to nought : but if it be of God, ye cannot overthrow it ; lest haply ye be found to fight even against God.*"* This divine maxim was but little attended to in times of persecution. Our ancestors seem to have left it to posterity to make the important discovery, that persecution is the direct method to multiply its objects.

But these people, who have been so much censured and ridiculed, had, perhaps as many virtues as their posterity. And it would be wise in the moderns, who stand elevated upon the shoulders of their ancestors, with the book of their experience spread before them, to improve their virtues and veil their faults.

The colonies of Connecticut and New Haven, from their first settlement, increased rapidly ; tracts of land were purchased of the Indians, and new towns settled from Stamford to Stonington, and far back into the country, when in 1661, Major John Mason, as agent for the colony, bought of the natives all lands which had not before been purchased by particular towns, and made a public surrender of them to the colony, in the presence of the General Assembly. Having done these things, the colonists petitioned

* Acts, Chap. v.

tioned King Charles II. for a charter, and their petition was granted. His Majesty on the 23d of April, 1662, issued his letters patent under the great seal, ordaining that the colony of Connecticut should, for ever hereafter, be one body corporate and politic, in fact and in name, confirming to them their ancient grant and purchase, and fixing their boundaries as follows, viz: "All that part of his Majesty's dominions in New England, in America, bounded east by Narraganset river, commonly called Narraganset bay, where the river falleth into the sea; and on the north by the line of Massachusetts plantation, and on the south by the sea, and in longitude as the line of the Massachusetts colony running from east to west, that is to say, from the said Narraganset bay on the east, to the South sea on the west part, with the islands thereunto belonging." This charter has ever since remained the basis of the government of Connecticut:

Such was the ignorance of the Europeans, respecting the geography of America, that their patents extended they knew not where; many of them were of doubtful construction; and very often covered each other in part, and have produced innumerable disputes and mischiefs in the colonies, some of which are not settled to this day. It is not my business to touch upon these disputes. I have only to observe, that Connecticut construed her charter as authorising them to pass over New York, which was then in possession of the subjects of a Christian prince, and claimed, in latitude and breadth mentioned therein, to the South sea. Accordingly purchases were made of the Indians on the Delaware river, west of the western bounds of New York, and within the supposed limits of Connecticut charter, and settlements were made thereon by people from, and under the jurisdiction of Connecticut. The charter of Pennsylvania granted to William Penn, in 1681, covered these settlements. This laid the foundation for a dispute, which for a long time was maintained with warmth on both sides. The matter was at last submitted to gentlemen chosen for the purpose, who decided the dispute in favour of Pennsylvania. Many, however, still assert the justice of the Connecticut claim.

The State of Connecticut have ceded to Congress all their lands west of Pennsylvania, except a reserve bounded east by Pennsylvania, and extending in length, 120 miles west, and in breadth from latitude 41° to $42^{\circ} 2'$ north. This cession, Congress have accepted.

The colony of New Haven, though unconnected with the colony of Connecticut, was comprehended within the limits of their charter, and, as they concluded, within their jurisdiction. But New Haven remonstrated against their claim, and refused to unite with them, until they should hear from England. It was not until the year 1665, when it was believed that the king's commissioners had a design upon the New England charters, that these two colonies formed an union, which has ever since amicably subsisted between them.

In 1672, the laws of the colony were revised, and the general court ordered them to be printed: and also, "that every family should buy one of the law books—such as pay in silver to have a book for twelve pence; such as pay in wheat, to pay a peck and a half a book; and such as pay in peas, to pay two shillings a book, the peas at three shillings the bushel." Perhaps it is owing to this early and universal spread of law books, that the people of Connecticut are to this day so fond of the law.

In 1750, the laws of Connecticut were again revised, and published in a small folio volume of 258 pages. Dr. Douglass observes, "that they were the most natural, equitable, plain and concise code of laws, for plantations, hitherto extant."

There has been a revision of them since the peace of 1783, in which they were greatly and very judiciously simplified.

The years 1675 and 1676 were distinguished by the wars with Philip and his Indians, and with the Narragansets, by which the colony was thrown into great distress and confusion. The inroads of the enraged savages were marked with cruel murders, and with fire and devastation,

In 1684, the charter of Massachusetts Bay and Plymouth were taken away, in consequence of *240 warrants* which had been issued against them. The charter of Connecticut was saved by an artful expedient.

Connecticut has ever made rapid advances in population. There have been more emigrations from this than from any of the other States, and yet it is at present full of inhabitants. This increase may be ascribed to several causes. The bulk of the inhabitants are industrious, sagacious husbandmen. Their farms furnish them with all the necessaries, most of the conveniences and but few of the luxuries of life. They of course must be generally temperate, and if they choose, can subsist with as much independence as is consistent with happiness. The subsistence of the farmer is substantial, and does not depend on incidental circumstances, like that of most other professions. There is no necessity of serving an apprenticeship to the business, nor of a large stock of money to commence it to advantage. Farmers, who deal much in barter, have less need of money than any other class of people. The ease with which a comfortable subsistence is obtained, induces the husbandman to marry young. The cultivation of his farm makes him strong and healthful. He toils cheerfully through the day—eats the fruit of his own labour with a gladsome heart—at night devoutly thanks his bounteous God for his daily blessings—retires to rest, and his sleep is sweet. Such circumstances as these have greatly contributed to the amazing increase of inhabitants in this State.

Besides, the people live under a free government, and have no fear of a tyrant. There are no overgrown estates with rich and ambitious landlords, to have an undue and pernicious influence in the election of civil officers. Property is equally enough divided, and must continue to be so, as long as the estates descend as they now do. No person qualified by law is prohibited from voting. He who has the most merit, not he who has the most money, is generally chosen into public office. As instances of this, it is to be observed, that many of the citizens of Connecticut, from the humble walks of life, have arisen to the first offices in the State, and filled them with dignity and reputation. That base business of electioneering, which is so directly calculated to introduce wicked and designing men into office, is yet but little known in Connecticut. A man who wishes to be chosen into office, acts wisely, for that end, when he keeps his desires to himself.

A thirst for learning prevails among all ranks of people in the State. More of the young men in Connecticut, in proportion to their numbers, receive a public education, than in any of the States.

Some have believed, and with reason, that the fondness for academic and collegiate education is too great—that it induces too many to leave the plough. If men of liberal education would return to the farm, and use their knowledge in improving agriculture, and encouraging manufactures, there could not be too many men of learning in the State: but this is too seldom the case.

Connecticut had but a small proportion of citizens who did not join in opposing the oppressive measures of Great Britain, and was active and influential, both in the
field

field and in the cabinet, in bringing about the revolution. Her soldiers were applauded by the commander in chief, for their bravery and fidelity.

What has been said in favour of Connecticut, though true when generally applied, needs to be qualified with some exceptions. Dr. Douglass spoke the truth when he said, that "some of the meaner sort are villains." Too many are idle and dissipated, and much time is unprofitably and wickedly spent at taverns, in law suits, and petty arbitrations. The public schools, in some parts of the State, have been too much neglected, and in procuring instructors, too little attention is paid to their moral and literary qualifications.

The revolution, which so essentially affected the governments of most of the colonies, produced no very perceptible alteration in the government of Connecticut. While under the jurisdiction of Great Britain, they elected their own governors, and all subordinate civil officers, and made their own laws, in the same manner, and with as little controul as they now do. Connecticut has ever been a republic, and perhaps as perfect and as happy a republic as has ever existed: while other States, more monarchical in their government and manners, have been under a necessity of undertaking the difficult task of altering their old, or forming new constitutions, and of changing their monarchical for republican manners, Connecticut has uninterruptedly proceeded in her old track, both as to government and manners; and, by these means, has avoided those convulsions which have rent other States into violent parties.

At the anniversary election of governor and other public officers, which is held yearly at Hartford on the second Thursday in May, a sermon is preached, which is published at the expense of the State.* On these occasions a vast concourse of respectable citizens, particularly of the clergy, are collected from every part of the State; and while they add dignity and solemnity to the important and joyful transactions of the day, serve to exterminate party spirit, and to harmonize the civil and religious interests of the State.

Connecticut has been highly distinguished in having a succession of governors, eminent both for their religious and political accomplishments. With the following list of their names I shall conclude my account of Connecticut:

Colony of New Haven.

Accessus.	Names.	Exitus.
1639	Theop. Eaton, Esq.	- 1659 died.
1659	Fra. Newman, Esq.	- 1661 died.
1662	William Leet, Esq.	- 1665

This year, 1665, the colonies of New Haven and Connecticut united, and Governor Winthrop was governor of both, and Governor Leet, deputy-governor.

* Would it not answer many valuable purposes if the gentlemen, who are annually appointed to preach the election sermons, would furnish a sketch of the history of the State for the current year, to be published at the close of their sermons? Such a sketch, which might easily be made, would render election sermons much more valuable. They would then be a very authentic *depositem* of facts for future historians of the State—they would be more generally and more eagerly purchased and read—they would serve to disseminate important knowledge, that of the internal affairs of the State, which every citizen ought to know, and might, if judiciously executed, operate as a check upon party spirit, and upon ambitious and designing men.

The Rev. Mr. Benjamin Trumbull, of North Haven, has for several years, with indefatigable industry, been making collections for a history of Connecticut. His abilities as a writer, and his accuracy as a historian, the public already know. It is hoped the public will shortly be favoured with his history. Through his indulgence in permitting me to select from his manuscripts, I am enabled to publish many of the above facts.

Colony of Connecticut.

Accessus.	Names.	Exitus.
1639	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1640
1640	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1641
1641	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1642
1642	George Wyllis, Esq.	- 1643
1643	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1644
1644	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1645
1645	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1646
1646	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1647
1647	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1648
1648	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1649
1649	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1650
1650	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1651
1651	John Haynes, Esq.	- 1652
1652	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1653
1653	John Haynes, Esq.	died 1653
1654	Edward Hopkins, Esq.	- 1655
1655	Thomas Wells, Esq.	- 1656

Colony of Connecticut.

Accessus.	Names.	Exitus.
1656	John Webster, Esq.	- 1657
1657	John Winthrop, Esq.	- 1658
1658	Thomas Wells, Esq.	- 1659
1659	John Winthrop, Esq.	- 1676
1676	William Leet, Esq.	1680
1680	Robert Treat, Esq.	- 1696
1696	John Winthrop, Esq.	- 1707
1707	Gurdon Saltonstall, Esq.	- 1724
1724	Joseph Talcott, Esq.	- 1741
1741	Jonathan Law, Esq.	- 1751
1751	Roger Woolcot, Esq.	- 1754
1754	Thomas Fitch, Esq.	- 1766
1766	William Pitkin, Esq.	- 1769
1769	Jonathan Trumbull, Esq.	1784
1784	Matthew Griswold, Esq.	- 1785
1785	Samuel Huntington, Esq.	- ———

MIDDLE STATES.

We now come to the SECOND GRAND DIVISION of the UNITED STATES, comprehending

NEW YORK, DELAWARE,
 NEW JERSEY, TERRITORY N. W. OF OHIO.
 PENNSYLVANIA,

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Upper Canada, from which it is separated by the Lakes; east, by the New England States; south, by the Atlantic Ocean, Maryland, Virginia, and the Ohio river, which separates it from Kentucky; west, by the Mississippi river.

RIVERS AND BAYS.] The principal rivers in this district are, the Hudson, the Delaware, the Susquehannah, the Ohio, the Mississippi, and their branches. York, Delaware, and part of Chesapeake bays are in this district.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this Grand Division, lying almost in the same latitudes, varies but little from that of New England: there are no two successive years alike; even the same successive seasons and months differ from each other every year: and there is, perhaps, but one steady trait in the character of this climate, and that is, it is uniformly variable: the changes of weather are great and frequently sudden. The range of the quicksilver in Fahrenheit's thermometer, according to Dr. Mitchill, is between the 24th degree below, and the 105th degree above cypher; and it has been known to vary 50 degrees in the course of 26 hours. Such alterations are much more considerable along the coast than in the interior and midland parts of the country; and, where-

ever

ever they prevail, are accompanied with proportionate changes in the air, from calms to winds, and from moisture to dryness. Storms and hurricanes sometimes happen, which are so violent as to overturn vessels, demolish fences, uproot trees, and unroof buildings. Droughts, of six weeks or two months continuance, occur now and then. Rain has been known to fall in such abundance that the earth, by measurement, has received 6,5 inches on a level, in the short space of four hours.* The quantity of water which falls in rain and snow, one year with another, amounts to from 24 to 36 inches.† In the northern parts of this district the snow falls in larger quantities, lies longer, and the cold is more steady and intense, by many degrees, than in southern; hence the climate of the former is more agreeable in winter, and that of the latter in summer. The warmest weather is generally in the month of July; but intensely warm days are often felt in May, June, August, and September.—Dr. Rittenhouse says, that during his residence in the country, in the State of Pennsylvania, he never had passed a summer without discovering frost in every month in the year, except July. The greatest degree of heat upon record in Philadelphia, in 1789, was 90°.—The standard temperature of air in Philadelphia is 52½ degrees, which is the temperature of their deepest wells, and the mean heat of their common spring water. There are seldom more than four months in the year in which the weather is agreeable without a fire: in winter, the winds generally come from the N. W. in fair, and from the N. E. in wet weather. The N. W. winds are uncommonly dry as well as cold.

The climate on the west side of the Alleghany mountains differs materially from that on the east side, in the temperature of the air, and the effects of the wind upon the weather, and in the quantity of rain and snow which fall every year. The S. W. winds, on the west side of the mountain, are accompanied by cold and rain. The temperature of the air is seldom so cold or so hot, by several degrees, as on the east side of the mountain.

On the whole, it appears that the climate of this division of the United States is a compound of most of the climates in the world—it has the moisture of Ireland in the spring—the heat of Africa in summer—the temperature of Italy in June—the sky of Egypt in autumn—the snow and cold of Norway, and the ice of Holland, in winter—the tempests, in a certain degree, of the West Indies in every season—and the variable winds and weather of Great Britain in every month of the year.

From this account of the climate of this district it is easy to ascertain what degrees of health, and what diseases prevail. As the inhabitants have the climates, so they have the acute diseases of all the countries that have been mentioned. Although it might be supposed, that with such changes and varieties in the weather, there would be connected epidemical diseases and an unwholesome climate, yet, on the whole, it is found in this district to be as healthy as any part of the United States.‡

* Dr. Mitchill.

† Dr. Rush.

‡ The foregoing remarks are grounded on the authorities of Dr. Rush and Dr. Mitchill, who have published the result of their inquiries in Mr. Carey's Museum, vols. 6th and 7th.

N E W Y O R K.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 350 } Breadth 300 }	between { 40° 40' and 45° N. Lat. 5° W. and 1° 30' E. Long. }	44,000

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED south-eastwardly, by the Atlantic Ocean; east, by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and Vermont; north, by the 45th degree of latitude, which divides it from Canada; north-westwardly, by the river Iroquois, or St. Lawrence, and the lakes Ontario and Erie; south-west and south, by Pennsylvania and New Jersey.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This State is divided into 19 counties, which, by an act of the legislature passed in March, 1788, were subdivided into townships.

Counties.	Towns.	No. Inh.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
New York	1	33131	New York City	32328
Albany	20	75736	Albany	3498
Suffolk	8	16440	{ East Hampton	3260
Queen's	6	16014	{ Huntington	1497
King's	6	4495	{ Jamaica	1675
Richmond	4	3835	{ Flat Bush	941
West Chester	21	24003	{ Brooklyn	1603
Orange	6	18492	{ Westfield	1151
Ulster	14	29397	{ Bedford	2470
Dutchess	12	45266	{ Goshen	2448
Columbia	8	27732	{ Orange	1175
Ranffelaer	—	formed since the census.	{ Kingston	3929
Washington	9	14042	{ Poughkeepsie	2529
Clinton	4	1614	{ Fishkill	5941
Montgomery	11	28848	{ Hudson	2584
Ontario	—	1075	{ Kinderhook	4661
	130	340120	{ Lanfinsburg	—
			{ Salem	2186
			{ Plattsburg	458
			divided since the census into three counties.	
			{ Canadaque	—
			Total number of inhabitants in the	
			State, according to the census of	
			1790.	

New Counties.	{ Herkemer	3	14000	1792	{ German Flats	1400
	{ Otsego		12000		{ Cooperstown	—
	{ Tyoga		7000		{ Chenango	—
					{ Union Town	—

These three last-mentioned counties have been separated from Montgomery since the census, and have acquired the greater part of their inhabitants subsequent to that period, most of whom emigrated from the New England States. The county of Herkemer is composed of the towns of German Flats, Herkemer, and Whitestown, which, in 1792, was divided into several other towns, and contained in 1790, according to the census, 4723 inhabitants; since which, this number has been increased to upwards of 14,000.

The

The townships, into which the counties are divided, are corporations invested with certain privileges. The act directs, that the freeholders in the several townships shall assemble in town meetings, on the first Tuesday in April annually, and choose their town officers, viz. one supervisor, one town clerk, from three to seven assessors, one or more collectors, two overseers of the poor, commissioners of highways, constables, fence-viewers, pound-masters, &c. These are to hold their respective offices one year, or until others be chosen. This act, which appears to have originated from a spirit of pure republicanism, came in force the first day of April, 1789. It has a happy tendency to disseminate through the State such information and such principles as are calculated to cherish the spirit of freedom, and to support our republican government. The frequent collection of people in town meetings makes them acquainted with each other, and assimilates their ideas and their manners: their being invested with power, makes them feel their importance, and rouses their ambition; their town meetings will be a school, in which all the free citizens of the State may learn how to transact business with propriety, and in which they may qualify themselves for the higher offices of the State; the number of public offices will be increased, without increasing the expenses of the State; and as the desire of promotion is innate in human nature, and as ambition to possess the requisite qualifications commonly accompanies this desire, the probability is, that the number of persons qualified for public office will be increased, and of course the number of good citizens proportionably multiplied, and the subordinate civil affairs of the State more faithfully and more regularly transacted.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] Hudson's river is one of the largest and finest rivers in the United States: it rises in the mountainous country between the lakes Ontario and Champlain. In its course south-easterly it approaches within six or eight miles of Lake George; then, after a short course east, turns southerly and receives the Socondaga from the south-west, which heads in the neighbourhood of Mohawk river. The course of the river thence to New York, where it empties into York Bay, is very uniformly south, 12 deg. or 15 deg. west. Its whole length is about 250 miles; from Albany to Lake George is sixty-five miles. This distance, the river is navigable only for batteaux, and has two portages, occasioned by falls of half a mile each.

The banks of Hudson's river, especially on the western side, as far as the highlands extend, are chiefly rocky cliffs. The passage through the highlands, which is sixteen miles, affords a wild romantic scene: in this narrow pass, on each side of which the mountains tower to a great height, the wind, if there be any, is collected and compressed, and blows continually as through a bellows: vessels, in passing through it, are often obliged to lower their sails. The bed of this river, which is deep and smooth to an astonishing distance, through a hilly, rocky country, and even through ridges of some of the highest mountains in the United States, must undoubtedly have been produced by some mighty convulsion in nature. The tide flows a few miles above Albany, which is 160 miles from New York: it is navigable for floops of 80 tons to Albany, and for ships to Hudson: ship navigation to Albany is interrupted by a number of islands, six or eight miles below the city, called the *Overhaugh*. It is in contemplation to confine the river to one channel, by which means the channel will be deepened, and the difficulty of approaching Albany with vessels of a larger size be removed. About 60 miles above New York the water becomes fresh. The river is stored with a variety of fish, which renders a summer passage to Albany delightful and amusing to those who are fond of angling.

The advantages of this river for carrying on the fur trade with Canada, by means of the lakes, have been already mentioned: its conveniences for internal commerce are

singularly

singularly great: the produce of the remotest farms is easily and speedily conveyed to a certain and profitable market, and at the lowest expense: in this respect, New York has greatly the advantage of Philadelphia. A great proportion of the produce of Pennsylvania is carried to market in waggons, over a great extent of country, some of which is rough; hence it is that Philadelphia is crowded with waggons, carts, horses and their drivers, to do the same business that is done in New York, where all the produce of the country is brought to market by water with much less show and parade. But Philadelphia has other advantages, which will be mentioned in their proper place, to compensate for this natural defect. The increasing population of the fertile lands upon the northern branches of the Hudson must annually increase the amazing wealth that is conveyed by its waters to New York: added to this, the ground has been marked out, the level ascertained, a company incorporated, by the name of "The President, Directors, and Company of the Northern Inland Lock Navigation, in the State of New York," and funds subscribed for the purpose of cutting a canal from the nearest approximating point of Hudson's river to South Bay, which empties into the south end of Lake Champlain: the distance is 18 miles. The difference of level and the face of the country are such, as to justify a belief that the opening of this canal will not be less practicable than useful.

Saranac river passes through Plattsburg into Lake Champlain: it has been explored nearly 30 miles, and there found equal in size to the mouth. In this river is the greatest abundance of fish, such as salmon, bass, pike, pickerel, trout, &c.

Sable river, not far from the Saranac, is scarcely 60 yards wide. On this stream are remarkable falls: the whole descent of the water is about 200 feet in several pitches, the greatest of which is 40 feet perpendicular: at the foot of it the water is unfathomable. A large pine has been seen, in a freshet, to pitch over endwise, and remain several minutes under water. The stream is confined by high rocks on either side, a space of 40 feet, and the banks at the falls are, at least, as many feet high. In a freshet the flood wood frequently lodges, and in a few minutes the water rises to full banks, and then bursts away its obstructions with a most tremendous crashing. The Big and Little Chazy rivers are in the township of Champlain, which borders on the Canada line: both are navigable some miles, the former six or seven, affording good mill seats—several mills are already erected. The British have a post, and maintain a small garrison, at Point-au-fer in this township.

The river Boquet passes through the town of Willsborough, in Clinton county, and is navigable for boats about two miles, and is there interrupted by falls, on which are mills. At this place are the remains of an entrenchment thrown up by General Burgoyne. Here he gave his famous war feast to his "numerous hosts of savages," and here, probably, he first *conceived* that celebrated proclamation which he afterwards *brought forth*.

Black river rises in the high country, near the sources of Canada Creek, which falls into Mohawk river, and takes its course N. W. and then N. E. till it discharges itself into Cataraqua or Iroquois river, not far from Swegauchec: it is said to be navigable for batteaux up to the lower falls, 60 miles, which is distant from the flourishing settlement of Whiteshown 25 miles. The whole length of this river is reckoned at 112 miles.

Onondago river rises in the Oneida lake, runs westwardly into Lake Ontario at Oswego: it is boatable from its mouth to the head of the lake, 74 miles, (except a fall which occasions a portage of twenty yards) thence batteaux go up Wood Creek almost
to

to Fort Stanwix, 40 miles, whence there is a portage of a mile to Mohawk river. Toward the head waters of this river salmon are caught in great quantities.

Mohawk river rises to the northward of Fort Stanwix, about eight miles from Black river, and runs southwardly 20 miles, to the fort; then eastward, 110 miles, into the Hudson. The produce that is conveyed down this river is landed at Skeneclady, and is thence carried by land sixteen miles, over a barren shrub plain, to Albany. Except a portage of about a mile, occasioned by the little falls, 56 miles above Skeneclady, the river is passable for boats from Skeneclady nearly or quite to its source. The perpendicular descent of these falls is estimated at 42 feet in the course of one mile; and it is supposed, they might be locked so as to be rendered passable for boats carrying five tons, for about 15,000l. currency. The Cohoez in this river are a great curiosity; they are three miles from its entrance into the Hudson. The river is about 100 yards wide; the rock, over which it pours as over a mill dam, extends almost in a line from one side of the river to the other, and is about thirty feet perpendicular height. Including the descent above, the fall is as much as sixty or seventy feet: the rocks below, in some places, are worn many feet deep by the constant friction of the water. The view of this tremendous cataract is diminished by the height of the banks on each side of the river. About a mile below the falls the river branches and forms a large island; but the two mouths may be seen at the same time from the opposite bank of the Hudson: the branches are fordable at low water, but are dangerous. A company by the name of "The President, Directors, and Company of the Western Inland Lock Navigation, in the State of New York," were incorporated by the legislature of New York, in March, 1792, for the purpose of opening a lock navigation from the now navigable part of Hudson's river, to be extended to Lake Ontario, and to the Seneca lake. This rout has been surveyed and found practicable, the expense estimated, and the funds subscribed, and the work is to be executed with all possible dispatch. The opening of this navigation would be a vast acquisition to the commerce of this State. A shore of at least 1000 miles in length would, in consequence of it, be washed by boatable waters, exclusive of all the great lakes, and many millions of acres of excellent tillage land, rapidly settling, would be accommodated with water communication for conveying their produce to market.

Delaware river rises in Lake Utstyantho, lat. $42^{\circ} 25'$, and takes its course south-west, until it crosses into Pennsylvania in latitude 42° ; thence southwardly, dividing New York from Pennsylvania, until it strikes the north-west corner of New Jersey, in latitude $41^{\circ} 24'$; and then passes off to sea, through Delaware bay, having New Jersey on the east side, and Pennsylvania and Delaware on the west.

Susquehannah E. Branch river has its source in lake Otsego, lat. $42^{\circ} 55'$, from which it takes a south-west course: it crosses the line which divides New York and Pennsylvania three times, the last time near Tyoga point, where it receives Tyoga river. Batteaux pass to its source; thence to Mohawk river is but twenty miles, capable of good roads.

Tyoga river rises in the Allegany mountains, in about latitude 42° , runs eastwardly and empties into the Susquehannah at Tyoga point, in latitude $41^{\circ} 57'$. It is boatable about 50 miles.

Seneca river rises in the Seneca country, and runs eastwardly, and in its passage receives the waters of the Seneca and Cayuga lakes, (which lie north and south, ten or twelve miles apart, each is between thirty and forty miles in length, and about a mile in breadth) and empties into the Onondago river, 14 miles above the falls, at a place called Three Rivers. From Three River point to Onondago lake, up Seneca river, is

12 miles. Within half a mile of this lake a salt spring issues from the ground, the water of which is saltier than that of the ocean : it constantly emits water in sufficient quantity for works of any extent : it is probable the whole country will be supplied from this spring, and at a very cheap rate. This spring is the property of the State. This river is boatable from the lakes downwards.

Chenestee river rises near the source of the Tyoga, and runs northwardly by the Chenestee castle and flats, and empties into Lake Ontario eighty miles east of Niagara fort. On this river is one set of large falls, not far from its junction with Lake Ontario. The inhabitants improve these falls to good purpose, by the erection of mills upon them.

The north east branch of the Allegany river heads in the Allegany mountains, near the source of the Tyoga, and runs directly west until it is joined by a larger branch from the southward, which rises near the west branch of the Susquehannah : their junction is on the line between Pennsylvania and New York. From this junction the river pursues a north-west course, leaving a segment of the river of about fifty miles in length, in the State of New York, thence it proceeds in a circuitous south-west direction, until it crosses into Pennsylvania ; from thence to its entrance into the Mississippi, it has already been described.

There are few fish in the rivers, but in the brooks are plenty of trout ; and in the lakes, yellow perch, sunfish, salmon trout, catfish, and a variety of others.

From this account of the rivers, it is easy to conceive the excellent advantages for conveying produce to market from every part of the State.

The settlements already made in this State, are chiefly upon two narrow oblongs, extending from the city of New York, east and north. The one east, is Long Island, which is 140 miles long, narrow, and surrounded by the sea. The one extending north is about forty miles in breadth, and bisected by the Hudson : and such is the intersection of the whole State by the branches of the Hudson, the Delaware, the Susquehannah, and other rivers which have been mentioned, that there are few places throughout its whole extent, that are more than fifteen or twenty miles from some boatable or navigable stream.

[BAYS AND LAKES.] York bay, which is nine miles long and four broad, spreads to the southward before the city of New York. It is formed by the confluence of the East and Hudson's rivers, and embosoms several small islands, of which Governor's Island is the principal : it communicates with the ocean through the *Narrows*, between Staten and Long Islands, which are scarcely two miles wide. The passage up to New York from Sandy Hook, the point of land that extends farthest into the sea, is safe, and not above twenty miles in length. The common navigation is between the east and west banks, in about twenty-two feet water. There is a light-house at Sandy Hook on a peninsula from the Jersey shore.

South bay lies 12 or 15 miles north of the northern bend in Hudson's river : at its north end it receives Wood Creek from the south, which is navigable several miles, and lined with fine meadows ; soon after it mingles its waters with East bay, which stretches eastward into Vermont. At the junction of these bays commences another bay or lake, from half a mile to a mile wide, whose banks are steep hills, or cliffs of rocks, generally inaccessible. At Ticonderoga this bay receives the waters of Lake George from the south-west, through a large brook, which rolls down a gentle declivity, at the foot of which were formerly a set of saw mills. The waters of Lake George are 100 feet higher than those of the bay.

Oneida Lake lies about twenty miles west of Fort Stanwix, and extends westward about 30 miles.

Salt Lake is small, and empties into Seneca river soon after its junction with the Onondago river, about 12 miles from Three River point. This lake is strongly impregnated with saline particles, which circumstance gave rise to its name. The Indians make their salt from it.

Lake Otsego, at the head of Susquehannah river, is about nine miles long and narrow, perhaps not more than a mile wide. The land on the banks of this lake is very good, and the cultivation of it easy.

Caniaderago lake is nearly as large as Lake Otsego, and six miles west of it. A stream, by the name of Oaks Creek, issues from it, and falls into the Susquehannah river, about five miles below Otsego. The best cheese in the State of New York is said to be made upon this Creek.

Chatoque lake is the source of Conawongo river, which empties into the Allegany: the lower end of it, whence the river proceeds, is in latitude $42^{\circ} 10'$; from thence to its head is about twenty-five miles. From the north-west part of this to lake Erie is nine miles, and was once a communication used by the French.

On the north side of the mountains, in Orange county, is a very valuable tract called the *Drowned Lands*, containing about 40 or 50,000 acres. The waters, which descend from the surrounding hills, being but slowly discharged by the river issuing from it, cover these vast meadows every winter, and render them extremely fertile; but they expose the inhabitants in the vicinity to intermittents. The Walkhill river which passes through this extensive *amphibious* tract, and empties into Hudson's river, is in the spring stored with very large eels in great plenty. The bottom of this river is a broken rock; and, it is supposed, that for 2000l. the channel might be deepened so as to let off all the waters from the meadows, and thereby redeem from the floods a large tract of rich land, for grass, hemp, and Indian corn.

ROADS.] The roads in this State have been in general but illy attended to till within the two or three last years. The legislature, convinced of the importance of attending to the matter, and perhaps stimulated by the enterprising and active Pennsylvanians, who are competitors for the trade of the western country, have lately granted very liberal sums towards improving those roads that traverse the most settled parts of the country, and opening such as lead into the western and northern parts of the State, uniting, as far as possible, the establishments on the Hudson's river, and the most populous parts of the interior country by the nearest practicable distances. A post regularly rides from Albany to the Chenessee river, once a fortnight, through Whitestown, Geneva, Canadagua, Canawargus, and Williamsburgh, on the Chenessee river. By this establishment a safe and direct conveyance is opened between the most interior parts of the United States, to the west, and the several States in the Union.

A grand road was opened through Clinton county, which borders upon Canada, in the year 1790, under the direction of a Mr. Rogers, of Dutchess county, and after him called Rogers' road. This road adds greatly to the convenience and safety of travelling between the State of New York and Canada, especially in the winter, when passing the lakes on ice is often dangerous, and always uncomfortable.

A road also has been lately cut from Katt's Kill, on the Hudson, westwardly, which passes near Owaseo lake.

BRIDGES.] A bridge, called Staat's Bridge, 250 feet long, and of a sufficient width to admit two carriages abreast, has lately been thrown across Abram's Creek, which falls into Hudson's river, near the city of Hudson, by which a communication with the

country, in a new direction, is opened from the city of Hudson; and a distance saved of four or five miles in the main post road from New York to Albany.

Skaticook bridge, in the town of that name, 10 miles from Lansingburgh; is an ingenious structure, built at the private expense of an enterprising and liberal gentleman. It cost 1400*l.* currency.

The legislature of the State have granted 3000*l.* to build a bridge over the sprouts of Mohawk river; whenever the sum of 1000*l.* shall be subscribed and paid. This bridge will be one of the longest in America, and will open a direct communication to a very extensive country, progressing fast in population, in the north-western parts of the State.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The State, to speak generally, is intersected by ridges of mountains running in a north-east and south-west direction. Beyond the Allegany mountains, however, the country is a dead level, of a fine rich soil, covered in its natural state with maple, beech, birch, cherry, black walnut, locust, hickory, and some mulberry trees. On the banks of Lake Erie are a few chestnut and oak ridges. Hemlock swamps are interspersed thinly through the country. All the creeks that empty into Lake Erie, have falls, which afford many excellent mill-seats.

The lands between the Seneca and Cayuga Lakes are represented as uncommonly excellent, being most agreeably diversified with gentle risings; and timbered with lofty trees, with little underwood. The legislature of this State have granted one million and a half acres of land as a gratuity to the officers and soldiers of the line of this State. This tract is bounded west by the east shore of the Seneca Lake, and the Massachusetts lands in the new county of Ontario; north, by part of Lake Ontario near Fort Oswego; south, by a ridge of the Allegany mountains and the Pennsylvania line; and east, by the Tuscaroro Creek (which falls nearly into the middle of the Oneida Lake) and that part of Montgomery which has been settling by the New England people very rapidly since the peace.

This pleasant country is divided into twenty-five townships of 60,000 acres each, which are again subdivided into 100 convenient farms, of 600 acres, making in the whole 2,500 farms.

East of the Allegany mountains the country is broken into hills with rich intervening vallies. The hills are clothed thick with timber, and when cleared afford a very fine pasture: the vallies, when cultivated, produce wheat, hemp, flax, peas, grass, oats, and Indian corn.

Besides the trees already mentioned, there are in various parts of the State, the several kinds of oak, such as white, red, yellow, black, and chestnut oak; white, yellow, spruce, and pitch pines: cedar, fir-tree, butternut, aspin, commonly called poplar, white wood, which in Pennsylvania is called poplar, and in England the tulip tree, rock, maple, the linden tree, which, with the white wood, grows on the low rich ground, the button wood, shrub-cranberry, the fruit of which hangs in clusters like grapes as large as cherries; this shrub too grows on low ground. Besides these is the sumach, which bears clusters of red berries: the Indians chew the leaves instead of tobacco; the berries are used in dyes. Of the commodities produced from culture, wheat is the staple. Of this article in wheat and flour, equivalent to one million bushels are yearly exported. Indian corn and peas are likewise raised for exportation; and rye, oats, barley, &c. for home consumption.

In some parts of the State large dairies are kept, which furnish for the market butter and cheese. The best lands in this State which lie along the Mohawk river, and
north

north of it, and west of the Allegany mountains, are yet mostly in a state of nature, but are most rapidly settling.

The county of Clinton in the most northern part of the State, on Lake Champlain and Lake George, lies about midway between Quebec and New York, and from 230 to 240 miles from each, and is settled by about 2000 inhabitants. A great proportion of the lands in this county are of an excellent quality, and produce in abundance the various kinds of grain cultivated in other parts of the State. The inhabitants manufacture earthen ware, pot and pearl ash, in large quantities, which they export to New York or Quebec—Their wool is of a better quality than that which is produced in more southern climates; their beef and pork is second to none; and the price of stall fed beef in Montreal (distant 60 miles from Plattsburg) is such as to encourage the farmers to drive their cattle to that market. Their forests supply them with sugar and molasses, as every family, with no more implements than are necessary for common use, can make a sufficiency for its own consumption, and that at a season when the farmer can be no otherwise employed. The soil is well adapted to the culture of hemp. The land carriage from any part of the country, in transporting their produce to New York, does not exceed 18 miles. The carrying place at Ticonderoga is one mile and a half; and from Fort George at the south end of the lake of the same name, to Fort Edward, is but 14 miles; after which there are two or three small obstructions by falls, which are about to be removed by the proprietors of the northern canal. From this county to Quebec are annually sent large rafts, the rapids at St. John's and Chamblee being the only interruption in the navigation, and those not so great but that at some seasons, batteaux with sixty bushels of salt can ascend them. At this distance from the sea, salt is sold at half a dollar a bushel.

In the northern and unsettled parts of the State are a plenty of moose deer, bears, some beavers, martins, and most other inhabitants of the forest, except wolves. Ducks, grouse, pigeons, and fish of many kinds, and particularly salmon, are taken in great abundance in different parts, and especially in the county of Clinton. At the mouth of Saranac river, which falls into Champlain, the salmon are found in such plenty, that it is usual to take 4 or 500 in a day with spears and small scoop nets. They are caught from May till November, and make excellent salted provisions, and every cottager, by spending an hour in the evening, may obtain a sufficient supply for his family.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] For the population of this State, according to the census of 1790, the reader is referred to the table of divisions. In 1786, the number of inhabitants was 238,897, of which 18,889 were blacks. In 1756, there were 96,775 inhabitants, including 13,542 blacks. The average annual increase of inhabitants in this State, from 1756 to 1786, was 4,554. The annual increase for the four years succeeding 1786, was upwards of 25,000. A great proportion of this increase consists of emigrants from the New-England States. The population for every square mile, including the whole State, is nearly eight, which shews that a great part of the State is yet unsettled.

The effects of the Revolution have been as greatly and as happily felt by this, as by any of the United States. The accession of inhabitants within a few years has been great, even beyond calculation; and so long as lands can be obtained upon advantageous terms, and with a good title; and the general government continues to protect industry and encourage commerce, so long they will continue to increase. The new settlements that are forming in the northern and western parts

of the State, are principally by people from New England. It is remarkable that the Dutch enterprize few or no settlements. Among all the new townships that have been settled since the peace, (and they have been astonishingly numerous) it is not known that one has been settled by the Dutch. Although they are as "intent upon gain" as other people, they had rather rest secure of what they possess, than hazard all or even a part, in uncertain attempts to increase it.

The English language is generally spoken throughout the State, but is not a little corrupted by the Dutch dialect, which is still spoken in some counties, particularly in King's, Ulster, Albany, and that part of Orange which lies south of the mountains. But as Dutch schools are almost, if not wholly discontinued, that language, in a few generations, will probably cease to be used at all; and the increase of English schools has already had a perceptible effect in the improvement of the English language.

The manners of the people differ as well as their language. The ancestors of the inhabitants in the southern and middle parts of Long Island were either natives of England or the immediate descendants of the first settlers of New England, and their manners and customs are similar to those of their ancestors. The counties inhabited by the Dutch have adopted the English manners in a great degree, but still retain many modes, particularly in their religion, which are peculiar to the Hollanders. They are industrious, neat, and economical in the management of their farms and their families. Whatever business they pursue, they generally follow the old track of their forefathers, and seldom invent any new improvements in agriculture, manufactures, or mechanics. They were the first settlers of this State, and were particularly friendly to the English colony that settled at Plymouth in New England, in 1620; and continued to be amicably disposed towards the English colonies east of them, until the unhappy dispute arose concerning the lands on Connecticut river.

The revolution, and its consequences, have had a very perceptible influence in diffusing a spirit of liberality among the Dutch, and in dispelling the clouds of ignorance and national prejudice. Schools, academies, and colleges, are established and establishing for the education of their children in the English and learned languages, and in the arts and sciences, and a literary and scientific spirit is evidently increasing. If such are the buddings of improvement in the dawn of our empire, what a rich harvest may we expect in its meridian!

The city of New York is inhabited principally by merchants, physicians, lawyers, mechanics, shopkeepers, and tradesmen composed of almost all nations and religions. They are generally respectable in their several professions, and sustain the reputation of honest, punctual, and fair dealers.

The manners and character of the inhabitants of every Colony or State will take their colouring, in a greater or less degree, from the peculiar manners of the first settlers. It is much more natural for emigrants to a settlement to adopt the customs of the original inhabitants, than the contrary, even though the emigrants should in length of time become the most numerous. Hence it is that the neatness, parsimony, and industry of the Dutch were early imitated by the first English settlers in the province, and, until the revolution, formed a distinguishing trait in their provincial character. It is still discernible, though in a much less degree, and will probably continue visible for many years to come.

Besides the Dutch and English already mentioned, there are in this State many emigrants from Scotland, Ireland, Germany, and some few from France. Many
Germans

Germans are settled on the Mohawk, and some Scots people on the Hudson, in the county of Washington. The principal part of the two former settled in the city of New York; and retain the manners, the religion, and some of them the language of their respective countries. The French emigrants settled principally at New Rochelle and on Staten island, and their descendants, several of them now fill some of the highest offices in the United States.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are three incorporated cities in this State; New York, Albany, and Hudson. New York is the capital of the State, and stands on the south-west point of Manhattan, commonly called New York Island, at the confluence of the Hudson and East rivers. The principal part of the city lies on the east side of the island, although the buildings extend from one river to the other. The length of the city on East river is about two miles; but falls much short of that distance on the banks of the Hudson. Its breadth, on an average, is nearly three fourths of a mile; and its circumference may be four miles. The plan of the city is not perfectly regular, but is laid out with reference to the situation of the ground. The ground which was unoccupied before the peace of 1783, was laid out in parallel streets of convenient width, which has had a good effect upon the parts of the city lately built. The principal streets run nearly parallel with the rivers. These are intersected, though not at right angles, by streets running from river to river. In the width of the streets there is a great diversity. Water-street and Queen-street, which occupy the banks of East river, are very conveniently situated for business, but they are low and too narrow; not admitting in some places of walks on the sides for foot-passengers. Broad-street, extending from the Exchange to City-hall, is sufficiently wide. This was originally built on each side of the creek, which penetrated almost to the City-hall. This street is low, but pleasant. But the most convenient and agreeable part of the city is the Broadway. It begins at a point which is formed by the junction of the Hudson and East rivers, occupies the height of land between them, upon a true meridional line, rises gently to the northward, is near 70 feet wide, adorned, where the fort formerly stood, (which has lately been levelled) with an elegant brick edifice for the accommodation of the governor of the State, and a public walk from the extremity of the point, occupying the ground of the lower battery, which is now demolished; also with two Episcopal churches, and a number of elegant private buildings. It terminates, to the northward, in a triangular area, fronting the bridewell and alms-house, and commands from any point, a view of the Bay and *Narrows*.

Since the year 1788, that part of the city which was buried in ruins during the war, has been rapidly rebuilding; the streets widened, straitened, raised in the middle under an angle sufficient to carry off the water to the side gutters, and foot-ways of brick made on each side. At this time, the part that was destroyed by fire is almost wholly covered with elegant brick houses.

Wall-street is generally 50 feet wide and elevated, and the buildings elegant. Hanover-square and Dock-street are conveniently situated for business, and the houses well-built. William-street is also elevated and convenient, and is the principal market for retailing dry goods. Many of the other streets are pleasant, but most of them are irregular and narrow.

The houses are generally built of brick, and the roofs tiled. There are remaining a few houses built after the old Dutch manner; but the English taste has prevailed almost a century.

Upon the south-west point of the land, a fort with four bastions formerly stood, and also a battery below. The area of the fort contained an elegant house for the accommodation

conunodation of the royal governors, and was consumed by fire in Governor Tryon's time. This fort and battery were removed in the year 1791.

The most magnificent edifice in this city is *Federal-hall*, situated at the head of Broad-street, where its front appears to great advantage. The basement story is Tuscan, and is pierced with seven openings; four massy pillars in the center support four Doric columns and a pediment. The freeze is ingeniously divided, to admit 13 stars in metopes; these, with the American Eagle, and other insignia in the pediment, and the tablets over the windows, filed with the 13 arrows and the olive-branch united, mark it as a building designated for national purposes. After entering from the Broad street, we find a plainly-finished square room, flagged with stone, and to which the citizens have free access; from this we enter the vestibule in the center of the pile, which leads in front to the floor of the representatives' room, or real *Federal-hall*, and through two arches on each side by a public stair-case on the left, and by a private one on the right, to the senate-chamber and lobbies.

This vestibule is paved with marble—is very lofty and well-finished; the lower part is of a light rassic, which supports a handsome iron gallery; the upper half is in a lighter style, and is finished with a sky-light of about 12 by 18 feet, which is decorated with a profusion of ornament in the richest taste. The representatives' room is a spacious and elegant apartment, 61 feet deep, 58 wide, and 36 high, a coved ceiling of about 10 feet high, not included. This room is of an octangular form; four of its sides are rounded in the manner of niches, and give a graceful variety to the whole. The windows are large, and placed 16 feet from the floor; all below them is finished with plain wainscot, interrupted only by four chimnies; but above these a number of Ionic columns and pilasters, with their proper entablature, are very judiciously disposed, and give great elegance. In the paunels between the windows trophies are carved, and the letters U. S. in a cypher surrounded with laurel. The speaker's chair is opposite the great door, and raised by several steps; the chairs for the members are ranged semicircularly, in two rows, in front of the speaker. There are two galleries for the accommodation of spectators.

On the left of the vestibule is a lobby, 19 by 48 feet, finished with Tuscan pilasters. This leads to the senate-chamber, which is 40 feet long, 30 wide, and 20 high, with an arched ceiling. It has three windows in front and three back. Those in front open into a gallery, 12 feet deep, guarded by an elegant iron railing. In this gallery our beloved PRESIDENT, attended by the Senate and House of Representatives, took his oath of office, in the face of Heaven, and in presence of a large concourse of people assembled in front.

The senate-chamber is decorated with pilasters, of an order invented by Major L'Enfant the architect, which have a magnificent appearance. The marble, which is used in the chimnies, is American; and for beauty of shades and polish is equal to any of its kind in Europe. Besides these, there are several other rooms for use and convenience; a library, lobbies, and committee rooms above, and guard-rooms below. The building on the whole does much credit to the ingenuity and abilities of the architect.

The other public buildings in the city are, three houses for public worship for the Dutch Reformed church—four Presbyterian churches—three Episcopal churches; two for German Lutherans and Calvinists—two Friends' meeting-houses—two for Baptists—two for Methodists—one for Moravians—one Roman Catholic church—one French Protestant church, out of repair—and a Jew's synagogue. Besides these, there is the governor's house already mentioned, a most elegant building—the college, gaol, and several

several other buildings of less note. The city is accommodated with four markets in different parts, which are furnished with a great plenty and variety of provisions in neat and excellent order.

The government of the city, which was incorporated in 1696, is now in the hands of a mayor, aldermen, and common-council. The city is divided into seven wards, in each of which there is chosen annually by the people, an alderman and an assistant, who, together with the recorder, are appointed annually by the council of appointment.

The mayor's court, which is held from time to time by adjournment, is in high reputation as a court of law.

A court of sessions is likewise held for the trial of criminal causes.

The situation of the city is both healthy and pleasant. Surrounded on all sides by water, it is refreshed with cool breezes in summer, and the air in winter is more temperate than in other places under the same parallel. York Island is 15 miles in length, and hardly one in breadth. It is joined to the Main by a bridge, called *King's bridge*. The channels between Long and Staten Islands, and between Long and York Islands, are so narrow as to occasion an unusual rapidity of the tides, which is increased by the confluence of the waters of the Hudson and East river: this rapidity in general prevents the obstruction of the channel by ice, so that the navigation is clear, except for a few days in seasons when the weather is uncommonly severe. There is no basin or bay for the reception of ships; but the road where they lie, in East river, is defended from the violence of the sea by the islands, which interlock with each other; so that except that of Rhode Island, and Portland, in the district of Maine, the harbour of New York, which admits ships of any burthen, is the best in the United States.

This city is esteemed the most eligible situation for commerce in the United States. It almost necessarily commands the trade of one half New Jersey, most of that of Connecticut, and part of that of Massachusetts, and almost the whole of Vermont, besides the whole fertile interior country, which is penetrated by one of the largest rivers in America. This city imports most of the goods consumed, between a line of 30 miles east of Connecticut river, and 20 miles west of the Hudson, which is 130 miles, and between the ocean and the confines of Canada, about 400 miles; a considerable portion of which is the best peopled of any part of the United States, and the whole territory contains at least 800,000 people, or one fifth of the inhabitants of the Union. Besides, some of the other States are partially supplied with goods from New York. But in the staple commodity, (flour) Pennsylvania and Maryland have exceeded it—the superfine flour of those States commanding a higher price than that of New York; not that the quality of the grain is worse, but because greater attention is paid in those States to the inspection and manufacture of that article.

In the manufacture, likewise, of iron, paper, cabinet works, &c. Pennsylvania exceeds not only New York, but all her sister States. In time of peace, however, New York will command more commercial business than any town in the United States. In time of war it will be insecure without a marine force; but a small number of ships will be able to defend it from the most formidable attacks by sea.

A want of good water is a great inconvenience to the citizens, there being few wells in the city. Most of the people are supplied every day with fresh water, conveyed to their doors in casks, from a pump near the head of Queen-street, which receives it from a spring almost a mile from the center of the city. This well is about 20 feet deep, and four feet diameter. The average quantity drawn daily from this remarkable well is 110 hogheads of 130 gallons each. In some hot summer-days 216 hogheads

have

have been drawn from it; and what is very singular, there are never more or less than three feet of water in the well. The water is sold commonly at 3d. a hogshhead at the pump. Several proposals have been made by individuals to supply the citizens by pipes; but none have yet been accepted.

New York is the gayest place in America. The ladies, in the richness and brilliancy of their dress, are not equalled in any city in the United States; not even in Charlestown, South Carolina, which has heretofore been called the center of the *beau monde*. The ladies, however, are not solely employed in attentions to dress; there are many who are studious to add to the brilliant external accomplishments, the more brilliant and lasting accomplishments of the mind: nor have they been unsuccessful; for New York can boast of great numbers of refined taste, whose minds are highly improved, and whose conversation is as inviting as their personal charms. Tinctured with a Dutch education, they manage their families with good economy and singular neatness.

In point of sociability and hospitality, New York is hardly exceeded by any town in the United States. If, however, in regard to these agreeable characteristics, the preference must be given to any one place, it decidedly belongs to Charlestown, South Carolina. Some travellers have, in these respects, given Boston the preference to New York.

An inquirer, who would wish to acquaint himself with the State of the people of New York, their manners and government, would naturally ask the citizens for their societies for the encouragement of sciences, arts, manufactures, &c.; for their public libraries; for their patrons of literature; their well-regulated academies; for their female academy for instructing young ladies in geography, history, belles lettres, &c. Such inquiries might be made with propriety, but could not at present be answered satisfactorily. From the spirit of improvement, however, which has of late appeared, there is reason to believe, that this trait in the character of the citizens of New York will soon give place to one distinguished for a preference for these things.

On a general view of this city, as described thirty years ago, and in its present state, the comparison is flattering to the present age; particularly the improvements in taste, elegance of manners, and that easy unaffected civility and politeness which form the happiness of social intercourse.

It is found, by a memorandum in one of the old registers, that the number of inhabitants in the city, taken by order of the King, in the year 1697, was as follows:

Whites	{	Men	-	946	Negroes	{	Men	-	209
		Women	-	1018			Women	-	205
		Young men and boys		864			Boys and girls		161
		Young women and girls		899					
Total		-	-	3727	Total		-	-	575

The number of inhabitants in the city and county of New York in 1756 was 10,881; 1771—21,863; 1786—23,614; 1790—33,131.

The city of Albany is situated upon the west side of Hudson's river, 160 miles north of the city of New York, in latitude 42° 36', and is, by charter granted in 1686, one mile upon the river, and 16 miles back. It contains upwards of 1000 houses, built mostly by trading people on the margin of the river. The houses stand chiefly upon Pearl, Market, and Water streets, and six other streets or lanes, which cross them at right

right angles. They are mostly built in the old Dutch Gothic style, with the gable end to the street, which custom the first settlers brought with them from Holland. The gable end is commonly of brick, with the heavy-moulded ornament of flaunting with notches, like stairs, and an iron horse for a weather-cock at top. The houses are seldom more than one story and a half high, and have but little convenience, and less elegance; but they are kept very neat, being rubbed with a mop almost every day, and scoured every week. Many new houses, however, have lately been built in this city, all in the modern style; the inhabitants are paving the streets in the New York plan with foot-ways, and making other improvements.

The city of Albany contains about 4000 inhabitants, collected from various parts. As great a variety of languages are spoken in Albany as in any town in the United States, but the English predominates, and the use of every other is constantly lessening. Adventurers, in pursuit of wealth, are led here by the advantages for trade, which this place affords.

Albany is unrivalled in its situation. It stands on the bank of one of the finest rivers in the world, at the head of sloop navigation. It enjoys a salubrious air, as is evinced by the longevity of its inhabitants. It is the natural emporium of the increasing trade of a large extent of country west and north; a country of an excellent soil, abounding in every article for the West India market, plentifully watered with navigable lakes, creeks, and rivers, as yet only partially peopled, but settling with almost unexampled rapidity, and capable of affording subsistence and affluence to millions of inhabitants. No part of America affords a more eligible opening for emigrants than this; and when the contemplated locks and canals are completed, the bridge over the Mohawk river erected, and convenient roads opened into every part of the country, all which will, it is expected, be accomplished in a few years, Albany will probably increase and flourish beyond almost every other city or town in the United States.

The well-water in this city is extremely bad, scarcely drinkable by those who are not accustomed to it. It oozes through a stiff blue clay, and it imbibes in its passage the fine particles common to that kind of soil: this discolours it, and when exposed any length of time to the air, it acquires a disagreeable taste. Indeed, all the water for cooking is brought from the river, and many families use it to drink. The water in the wells is unwholesome, being full of little insects, resembling, except in size, those which we frequently see in stagnated rain-water. But the inhabitants are about to remedy this inconvenience, by constructing water-works to convey good water into the city.

The public buildings are, a Low Dutch church, one for Presbyterians, one for Germans or High Dutch, one for Episcopalians—a hospital, the city-hall, and a handsome brick gaol.

The city of Hudson has had the most rapid growth of any place in America, if we except Baltimore, in Maryland. It is situated on the east side of Hudson's river, in latitude $42^{\circ} 23'$, and is 130 miles north of New York; 30 miles south of Albany, and four miles west from Old Claverack town. It is surrounded by an extensive and fertile back country, and, in proportion to its size and population, carries on a large trade.

No longer ago than the autumn of 1783, Messrs. Seth and Thomas Jenkins, from Providence, in the State of Rhode Island, having first reconnoitred all the way up the river, fixed on the unsettled spot where Hudson now stands, for a town. To this spot they found the river was navigable for vessels of any size. They purchased a tract of

about a mile square, bordering on the river, with a large bay to the southward, and divided it into thirty parcels or shares. Other adventurers were admitted to proportions, and the town was laid out in squares, formed by spacious streets, crossing each other at right angles: each square contains thirty lots, two deep, divided by a twenty feet alley; each lot is fifty feet in front and 120 feet in depth.

In the spring of 1784, several houses and stores were erected. The increase of the town from this period to the spring of 1786, two years only, was astonishingly rapid, and reflects great honour upon the enterprising and persevering spirit of the original founders. In the space of time just mentioned, no less than 150 dwelling houses, besides shops, barns, and other buildings, four warehouses, several wharves, spermaceti works, a covered rope walk, and one of the best distilleries in America, were erected, and 1500 souls collected on a spot, which, three years before, was improved as a farm, and but two years before began to be built. Its increase since has been very rapid; a printing-office has been established, and several public buildings have been erected, besides dwelling houses, stores, &c. The inhabitants are plentifully and conveniently supplied with water, brought to their cellars in wooden pipes from a spring two miles from the town.

It stands on an eminence, from which are extensive and delightful views to the north-west, north, and round that way to the south-east, consisting of hills and vallies, variegated with woods and orchards, corn-fields and meadows, with the river, which is in most places a mile over, and may be seen a considerable distance to the northward, forming a number of bays and creeks. From the south-east to the south-west, the city is screened with hills at different distances, and west, afar off over the river and a large valley, the prospect is bounded by a chain of stupendous mountains, called the Katts-kill, running to the west-north-west, which add magnificence and sublimity to the whole scene.

Upwards of twelve hundred sleighs entered the city daily, for several days together, in February 1786, loaded with grain of various kinds, boards, shingles, staves, hoops, iron ware, stone for building, fire-wood, and sundry articles of provision for the market, from which some idea may be formed of the advantage of its situation with respect to the country adjacent, which is every way extensive and fertile, particularly westward. The original proprietors of Hudson offered to purchase a tract of land adjoining the south part of the city of Albany, and were constrained, by a refusal of the proposition, to become competitors for the commerce of the northern country, when otherwise they would have added great wealth and consequence to Albany.

Poughkeepsie is the shire town of Dutchess county, and is situated upon the east side of Hudson's river, and north of Wapping kill or creek. It is a pleasant little town, and has frequently been the seat of the State government.

Lansinburgh, formerly called the New City, stands on the east side of the Hudson, just opposite the south branch of Mohawk river, and nine miles north of Albany. It is a very flourishing place, pleasantly situated on a plain at the foot of a hill.

Kingston is the county town of Ulster. Before it was burnt by the British, in 1777, it contained about 200 houses, regularly built on an elevated dry plain, at the mouth of a little pleasant stream, called Eufopus kill or creek, that empties into the Hudson; but is nearly two miles west from the river. The town has been rebuilt.

Skenectady is sixteen miles north-west of Albany, in Albany county, situated on the banks of the Mohawk river. The town is compact and regular, built of brick, and, excepting a few, in the old Dutch style, on a rich flat of low land, surrounded with hills. The windings of the river through the town, and the fields, which are often
overflowed

overflowed in the spring, afford a beautiful prospect about harvest time. As it is at the foot of navigation on a long river, which passes through a very fertile country, one would suppose it to embrace much of the commerce of it; but originally knowing no other than the fur trade, since the revolution the place has decayed, and no advantage been taken of its happy situation.

Plattsburgh is an extensive township in Clinton county, situated on the west margin of Lake Champlain. From the south part of the town the mountains trund away wide from the lake, and leave a charming tract of excellent land, of a rich loam, well watered, and about an equal proportion suitable for meadow and for tillage. The land rises in a gentle ascent for several miles from the lake, of which every farm will have a delightful view. Seven years ago, this township and the whole county indeed, which at present contains several thousand inhabitants, was a wilderness; now they have a house for public worship, a court house, and gaol. The courts of common pleas and general sessions of the peace sit here twice in a year. They have artisans of almost every kind among them, and furnish among themselves all the materials for building, glass excepted. Polite circles may here be found, and the genteel traveller be entertained with the luxuries of a sea-port, a tune on the harpsichord, and a philosophical conversation. This, with many other instances of the kind, serve to verify a prophetic remark, in a letter of Congress to their constituents, written in a time of gloomy despondency, to the following purport: "Vast lakes and rivers, scarcely known or explored, whose waters have rolled for ages in silence and obscurity to the ocean, and extensive wildernesses of fertile soil, the dwelling place of savage beasts, shall yet hear the din of industry, become subservient to commerce, and boast delightful villas, gilded spires, and spacious cities rising on their banks, and fields loaded with the fruit of cultivation."

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES.] New York is considerably behind her neighbours in New England, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in point of improvements in agriculture and manufactures. Among other reasons for this deficiency, that of want of enterprize in the inhabitants is not the least. Indeed their local advantages have been such as that they have grown rich without enterprize. Besides, lands have hitherto been cheap, and farms of course large, and it requires much less ingenuity to raise 1000 bushels of wheat upon sixty acres of land, than to raise the same quantity upon thirty acres. So long, therefore, as the farmer in New York can have sixty acres of land to raise 1000 bushels of wheat, he will never trouble himself to find out how he can raise the same quantity upon half the land. It is population alone that stamps a value upon lands, and lays a foundation for high improvements in agriculture. When a man is obliged to maintain a family on a small farm, his invention is exercised to find out every improvement that may render it more productive. This appears to be the great reason why the lands on Delaware and Connecticut rivers produce the farmer twice as much clear profit as lands in equal quantity and of the same quality upon the Hudson. If the preceding observation be just, improvements will keep pace with population and the increasing value of lands. Another cause, which has heretofore operated in preventing agricultural improvements in this State, has been their government, which, in the manner it was conducted until the revolution, was extremely unfavourable to improvements of almost every kind, and particularly in agriculture. The governors were many of them land jobbers, bent on making their fortunes, and being invested with power to do this, they either engrossed for themselves, or patented away to their particular favourites, a very great proportion of the whole province. This, as has been before observed, proved an effectual bar to population, and of course, according to our present hypothesis, has kept down the

price of lands, and so prevented improvements in agriculture. It ought to be observed, in this connection, that these over-grown estates could be cultivated only by the hands of tenants, who, having no right in the soil, and no certain prospect of continuing upon the farm which they held at the will of their landlord, had no motives to make those expensive improvements, which, though not immediately productive, would prove very profitable in some future period. The tenant, dependent on his landlord for his annual support, confines his views and improvements to the present year; while the independent freeholder, secure of his estate for himself and his successors, carries his views into futurity, and early lays the foundation for growing improvement. But these obstacles have been removed, in a great measure, by the revolution. The genius of the government of this State, however, still favours large monopolies of lands, which have, for some years back, been granted without regard either to quantity or settlement. The fine fertile country of the Mohawk, in Montgomery county, which was formerly possessed by Sir William Johnson, and other land jobbers, who were enemies to their country, has been forfeited to the State, and is now split up into freehold estates, and settling with astonishing rapidity.

The foregoing observations will in a great measure account for the great neglect of manufactural improvements. Mr. Smith in his history of New York, more than thirty years ago, observed, "It is much owing to the disproportion between the number of our inhabitants, and the vast tracts still remaining to be settled, that we have not as yet entered upon scarcely any other manufactures than such as are indispensably necessary for our home convenience." This same cause has operated ever since in the same way, though not of late in the same degree.

Great improvements in agriculture cannot be expected (unless they are made by a few individuals who have a particular genius for that business) so long as lands are plenty and cheap; and improvements in manufactures never precede, but invariably follow improvements in agriculture. These observations apply more particularly to the country. The city of New York contains a great number of people, who are employed in various kinds of manufactures. Among many other articles manufactured in this city are wheel carriages of all kinds, loaf sugar, bread, beer, shoes and boots, saddlery, cabinet work, cutlery, hats, wool cards, clocks, watches, potters ware, umbrellas, all kinds of mathematical and musical instruments, ships, and every thing necessary for their equipment. Glass works, and several iron works, have been established in different parts of the country, but they never till lately have been very productive, owing solely to the want of workmen, and the high price of labour, its necessary consequence. The internal resources and advantages for these manufactories, such as ore, wood, water, hearth stone, proper situations for bloomeries, forges, and all kinds of water works, are immense. There are several paper mills in the State, which are worked to advantage. The manufacture of maple sugar, within a few years past, has become an object of great importance. As many as 300 chests of 400lb. each, were made in the thinly inhabited county of Otsego, in the year 1791; besides large quantities, sufficient for home consumption, in other newly-settled parts of the State.

TRADE.] The situation of New York, with respect to foreign markets, has decidedly the preference to any of the States. It has, at all seasons of the year, a short and easy access to the ocean. We have already mentioned that it commands the trade of a great proportion of the best settled and best cultivated parts of the United States. New York has not been unmindful of her superior local advantages, but has availed herself of them to their full extent.

Their

Their exports to the West Indies are, biscuit, peas, Indian corn, apples, onions, boards, slaves, horses, sheep, butter, cheese, pickled oysters, beef and pork. But wheat is the staple commodity of the State, of which no less than 677,700 bushels were exported in the year 1775, besides 2,555 tons of bread, and 2,828 tons of flour. Inspectors of flour are appointed to prevent impositions, and to see that none is exported but that which is deemed by them merchantable. West India goods are received in return for these articles. Besides the above mentioned articles, are exported flax-seed, cotton wool, sarsaparilla, coffee, indigo, rice, pig iron, bar iron, pot ash, pearl ash, furs, deers skins, log-wood, fustic, mahogany, bees-wax, oil, Madeira wine, rum, tar, pitch, turpentine, whale fins, fish, sugars, molasses, salt, tobacco, lard, &c. but most of these articles are imported for re-exportation. The trade of this State has greatly increased since the revolution, and the balance is almost constantly in its favour. The exports to foreign parts, for the year ending September 30th, 1791, consisting principally of the articles above enumerated, amounted to 2,516,197 dollars. This State owns 46,626 tons of shipping, besides which she finds employment for about 40,000 tons of foreign vessels.

MEDICINAL SPRINGS.] The most noted springs in this State are those of Saratoga: they are eight or nine in number, situated in the margin of a marsh, formed by a branch of Kayadaroffora Creek, about twelve miles west from the confluence of Fish Creek and Hudson's river. They are surrounded by a rock of a peculiar kind, formed by petrifications. One of them, however, more particularly attracts the attention; it rises above the surface of the earth five or six feet, in the form of a pyramid. The aperture in the top, which discovers the water, is perfectly cylindrical, of about nine inches diameter. In this the water is about twelve inches below the top, except at the time of its annual discharge, which is commonly in the beginning of summer. At all times it appears to be in as great agitation as if boiling in a pot, although it is extremely cold. The same appearances obtain in the other springs, except that the surrounding rocks are of different figures, and the water flows regularly from them.

By observation and experiment, the principal impregnation of the water is found to be a fossil acid, which is predominant in the taste. It is also strongly impregnated with a saline substance, which is very discernible in the taste of the water, and in the taste and smell of the petrified matter about it. From the corrosive and dissolving nature of the acid, the water acquires a chalybeate property, and receives into its composition a portion of calcareous earth, which, when separated, resembles an impure magnesia. As the different springs have no essential variance in the nature of their waters, but the proportions of the chalybeate impregnation, it is rendered probable that they are derived from one common source, but flow in separate channels, where they have connection with metallic bodies in greater or less proportions. The stomachs of some females, however, are so delicate, as to perceive a difference in the effect and operation of the different springs.

The prodigious quantity of air contained in this water makes another distinguishing property of it. This air, striving for enlargement, produces the fermentation and violent action of the water before described. After the water has stood a small time in an open vessel (no tight one will contain it) the air escapes, the water becomes vapid, and loses all that life and pungency which distinguish it when first taken from the pool. The particles of dissolved earth are deposited as the water flows off, which, with the combination of the salts and fixed air, concrete and form the rocks about the springs.

As to the quality of these medicinal springs, to most people who drink the waters, they are at first very disagreeable, having a strong, brackish, briny taste; but use in a great measure takes off the nauseousness, and renders them palatable, and to many very grateful. Upon a few they operate as an emetic; upon most as cathartic and diuretic. They may be taken in very large quantities without sensible injury, or disagreeable operation.

The following curious experiments made on these waters, are extracted from Dr. Mitchell's Journal :

"A young turkey held a few inches above the water in the crater of the lower spring, was thrown into convulsions in less than half a minute, and gasping, shewed signs of approaching death; but on removal from that place, and exposure to the fresh air, revived and became lively. On immersion again for a minute in the gas, the bird was taken out languid and motionless.

A small dog put into the same cavity, and made to breathe the contained air, was, in less than one minute, thrown into convulsive motions, made to pant for breath, and lastly to lose entirely the power to cry or move; when taken out, he was too weak to stand, but soon, in the common air, acquired strength enough to rise and stagger away.

A trout recently caught, and briskly swimming in a pail of brook water, was carefully put into a vessel just filled from the spring, the fish was instantly agitated with violent convulsions, gradually lost the capacity to move and poise itself, grew stupid and insensible, and in a few minutes was dead.

A candle repeatedly lighted and let down near the surface of the water, was suddenly extinguished, and not a vestige of light or fire remained on the wick.

A bottle filled with the water and shaken emits suddenly a large quantity of aerial matter, that either forces out the cork, or makes a way beside or through it, or bursts the vessel.

A quantity of wheaten flour moistened with this water and kneaded into dough, when made into cakes and put into a baking pan, rose, during the application of heat, into light and spongy bread, without the aid of yeast or leaven.

From which it appears that the air extricated from the water is precisely similar to that produced by ordinary fermentation.

Some lime-water, made of stalactites brought from the subterranean cave at Rhinebec, became immediately turbid on mixture with the spring water, but when the water had been lately drawn, the precipitate was quickly re-dissolved.

Some of the rock surrounding the spring, on being put into the fire, calcined to quick-lime and flaked very well.

When the aerial matter has evaporated, the water loses its transparency and lets fall a calcareous sediment.

Whence it is true, that the gas is aerial acid, that the rock is lime-stone, and that by means of the former the water becomes capable of dissolving and conveying the latter.

Great numbers of people, under a variety of maladies, resort to these springs, and many find relief, and a considerable number a complete cure, particularly in bilious disorders, salt rheum, and relaxations. But as the waters are unfriendly and even fatal in some disorders, they ought to be used under the direction of a physician thoroughly acquainted with the qualities of the waters, and the diseases of the patients. Ignorant of the suitableness of the waters to their complaints, many have imprudently thrown away their lives in the use of them."

New Lebanon springs are next in celebrity to those of Saratoga. New Lebanon is a pleasant village, situated partly in a vale, and partly on the declivity of hills. The pool is situated on a commanding eminence, overlooking the valley, and surrounded with a few houses, which afford but indifferent accommodations for the valetudinarians who resort here in search of health. The waters have an agreeable temperature, and are not unpleasant to the taste. From the experiments of Dr. Mitchell, it appears that the water contains no iron, no lime, no neutral salt, no fixed air, no other acid; that soap unites very well with the water, makes a good lather, and is excellent for bleaching cloths; that the spring is a *Therma*, and has a plenty of lime-stone in its neighbourhood. Its warmth is so considerable that during the coolness of the morning, even in August, copious vapours are emitted by the pool, and the stream which issues from it, for a considerable distance; but the evaporated matter has no peculiar odour. From all which particulars taken together, this theory rationally results; a quantity of iron and brimstone, somewhere within the mountain, are, by reason of their chemical affinity, in the act of combining into *martial pyrites*. During their action upon each other, *heat* is produced, and *pure air* absorbed. The water running in the neighbourhood of this bed of pyrites borrows some of its heat, and receives also that part of the atmospheric fluid which remains after the consumption of the pure air, to wit, *foul* or *azotic gas*. But as the heat is excited in the bowels of a calcareous mountain, it happens, that by the combination of the *lime-stone with a very small portion of the sulphur, a calcareous bepar is formed*, which flying off in the form of *hepatic gas*, gives an exceedingly slight tincture to the water of the pool. These waters are used with success, it is said, in scorbutic and rheumatic diseases, salt rheums, &c. but are pernicious to consumptive persons.

In the new town of Rensselaer, nearly opposite the city of Albany, a medicinal spring has lately been discovered, combining most of the valuable properties of the celebrated waters of Saratoga. Should further experiments confirm the favorable opinion already entertained of this spring, it will prove a fortunate discovery for the city of Albany, and for the country adjoining, as well as for the invalids who annually resort to Saragota, under many inconveniencies and at a great expense.

The salt springs we have already mentioned. The weight of a bushel of the salt made of these waters is 56lb. and is equal in goodness to that imported from Turks Island.

MINERALS AND FOSSILS.] This State embosoms vast quantities of iron ore. Naturalists observe that ore, in swamps and pondy ground, vegetates and increases. There is a silver mine at Philipsburg, which produces virgin silver. Lead is found in Herkemer county, and sulphur in Montgomery. Spar, zink or spelter, a semi-metal, magnez, used in glazings, pyrites of a golden hue, various kinds of copper ore, and lead and coal mines, are found in this State. Also petrified wood, plaster of Paris, isinglass in sheets, talc and crystals of various kinds and colours, flint, asbestos, and several other fossils. A small black stone has also been found, which vitrifies with a small heat, and, it is said, makes excellent glass.

LITERARY AND HUMANE SOCIETIES.] There are very few societies for improvement in knowledge or humanity in this State; and these few are in the city of New York. The first is, "The society for promoting useful knowledge." This society is upon an establishment similar to other philosophical societies in Europe and America, but is not incorporated. The members meet once a month. Secondly,
"The

"The Society for the manumission of slaves and protecting such of them as have been or may be liberated." This society meets once a quarter. Both these societies consist of gentlemen of the first character in the city, and of some in other parts of the State. Besides these there is a Marine society, a society for the relief of poor Debtors confined in gaol. A manufacturing society, an Agricultural society lately established, of which the members of the legislature are *ex officio* members, and a Medical society.

LITERATURE, COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] Until the year 1754, there was no college in the province of New York. The state of literature, at that time, I shall give in the words of their historian: "Our schools are in the lowest order; the instructors want instruction, and through a long and shameful neglect of all the arts and sciences, our common speech is extremely corrupt, and the evidences of a bad taste, both as to thought and language, are visible in all our proceedings, public and private." This may have been a just representation at the time when it was written; but much attention has since been paid to education. There are eight incorporated academies in different parts of the State; but many parts of the country are yet either unfurnished with schools, or the schools which they have are kept by low, ignorant men, which are worse than none; for children had better remain in ignorance than be illy taught. We are happy to add, that the legislature have lately patronized collegiate and academic education, by granting a large gratuity to the college and academies in this State, which, in addition to their former funds, renders their endowments handsome, and adequate to their expenditures.

King's College, in the city of New York, was principally founded by the voluntary contributions of the inhabitants of the province, assisted by the General Assembly, and the corporation of Trinity Church; in the year 1754, a royal charter (and grant of money) being then obtained, incorporating a number of gentlemen therein mentioned, by the name of "The governors of the college of the province of New York, in the city of New York, in America;" and granting to them and their successors for ever, amongst various other rights and privileges, the power of conferring all such degrees as are usually conferred by either of the English Universities.

By the charter it was provided that the president shall always be a member of the church of England, and that a form of prayer collected from the liturgy of that church, with a particular prayer for the college, shall be daily used, morning and evening, in the college chapel; at the same time, no test of their religious persuasion was required from any of the fellows, professors, or tutors: and the advantages of education were equally extended to students of all denominations.

The building (which is only one third of the intended structure) consists of an elegant stone edifice, three complete stories high, with four stair-cases, twelve apartments in each, a chapel, hall, library, museum, anatomical theatre, and a school for experimental philosophy.

The college is situated on a dry gravelly soil, about 150 yards from the bank of Hudson's river, which it overlooks; commanding a most extensive and beautiful prospect.

Since the revolution, the legislature passed an act constituting 21 gentlemen (of whom the Governor and Lieutenant-governor for the time being are members *ex officio*) a body corporate and politic, by the name of "The regents of the university of the State of New York." They are entrusted with the care of literature in general in the State, and have power to grant charters of incorporation for erecting colleges

colleges and academics throughout the state, are to visit these institutions as often as they shall think proper, and report their state to the legislature once a year.

King's College, which we have already described, is now called COLUMBIA COLLEGE. This college, by an act of the legislature, passed in the spring of 1787, was put under the care of 24 Gentlemen, who are a body corporate, by the name and style of "The Trustees of Columbia College in the city of New York." This body possess all the powers vested in the governors of King's college before the revolution, or in the regents of the university since the revolution, so far as their power respected this institution. No regent can be a trustee of any particular college or academy in the State. The regents of the university have power to confer the higher degrees, and them only.

The college edifice has received no additions since the peace. The funds, exclusive of the liberal grant of the legislature, amount to between twelve and thirteen thousand pounds currency, the income of which is sufficient for present exigencies.

This college is now in a thriving state, and has about 100 students in the four classes, besides medical students. The officers of instruction and immediate government are a president, professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, a professor of logic and geography, and a professor of languages. A complete medical school has been lately annexed to the college, and able professors appointed by the trustees in every branch of that important science, who regularly teach their respective branches with reputation. The number of medical students is about 50, and increasing. The library and museum were destroyed during the war. The philosophical apparatus is new and complete.

Of the eight incorporated academies, one is at Flatbush in King's county, on Long Island, four miles from Brooklyn-ferry. It is situated in a pleasant, healthy village. The building is large, handsome, and convenient, and is called *Erasmus Hall*. The academy is flourishing under the care of a principal and other subordinate instructors.

There is another at East Hampton, on the east end of Long Island, by the name of CLINTON ACADEMY. The others are in different parts of the State. Besides these there are schools established and maintained by the voluntary contributions of the parents. A spirit for literary improvement is evidently diffusing its influence throughout the State.

RELIGION.] The constitution of this State provides for "the free exercise and enjoyment of religious profession and worship, without discrimination or preference within the State, for all mankind. Provided that the liberty of conscience hereby granted, shall not be so construed as to excuse acts of licentiousness, or justify practices inconsistent with the peace and safety of the State."

The various religious denominations in this State are the following; English Presbyterians, Dutch reformed, Baptists, Episcopalians, Friends or Quakers, German Lutherans, Moravians, Methodists, Roman Catholics, Jews, Shakers, and a few of the followers of Jemima Wilkinson. The Shakers are principally settled at New Lebanon, and the followers of Jemima Wilkinson at Geneva, about twelve miles S. W. of the Cayoga Lake. For the peculiar sentiments of these various religious sects see the general Account of the United States, under the article Religion.

In April 1784 the legislature of this State passed an act enabling all religious denominations to appoint trustees, not less than three or more than nine, who shall

be a body corporate, for the purpose of taking care of the temporalities of their respective congregations, and for the other purposes therein mentioned.

The ministers of every denomination in the State are supported by the voluntary contributions of the people, raised generally by subscription, or by a tax upon the pews; except the Dutch churches in New York, Skeneclady, and Kingston, which have, except the two last, large estates confirmed by charter. The Episcopal church also in New York possesses a very large estate in and near the city.

CONSTITUTION AND COURTS OF JUSTICE.] The present constitution of the State was established by convention authorized for the purpose, April 20th, 1777.

The supreme legislative powers of the State are vested in two branches, a *Senate* and *Assembly*. The members of the senate are elected by the freeholders of the State, who possess freehold estates to the value of 100l. clear of debts. For the purpose of electing senators, the State is divided into four great districts, each of which chooses a certain number, viz.

Southern district, including the counties of	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{New York,} \\ \text{Suffolk,} \\ \text{West Chester,} \\ \text{King's,} \\ \text{Queen's,} \\ \text{Richmond,} \end{array} \right\}$	$\left. \begin{array}{c} \text{Nine} \\ \text{Senators.} \end{array} \right\}$	Middle District	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Dutchess,} \\ \text{Ulster,} \\ \text{Orange,} \end{array} \right\}$	Six.
Western District	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Albany,} \\ \text{Montgomery,} \end{array} \right\}$	Six.	Eastern District	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Washington,} \\ \text{Cumberland,} \\ \text{Gloucester,} \end{array} \right\}$	Three.

The senators are divided by lot into four classes, six in each class, and numbered, first, second, third, and fourth. The seats of the first class are vacated at the expiration of one year; the second, at the expiration of the next, &c. and their places filled by new elections. Thus a small change is made in the senate every year; but three-fourths of the members remaining preserve a knowledge of the business of a former session. A majority of the senate is necessary to do business, and each branch of the legislature has a negative upon the other.

The legislature can at any time alter this division of the State for the choice of senators; and an increase of electors in any district, to the amount of one twenty-fourth of the electors in the whole State, entitles the district to another senator. But the number of senators can never exceed one hundred.

The assembly of the State is composed of representatives from the several counties, chosen annually in May in the following proportion:

For the city and county of New York, nine.			For the city and county of Albany, seven.		
For Dutchess,	-	7	For Richmond,	-	2
West Chester,	-	6	Montgomery,	-	6
Ulster,	-	6	Washington,	}	4
Suffolk,	-	5	and Clinton,		
Queen's,	-	4	Columbia,	-	3
Orange,	-	4	Cumberland,	-	3
King's,	-	2	Gloucester,	-	2

By the constitution, however, it is ordered, that at the end of seven years after the termination of the late war, a census of the electors and inhabitants shall be taken, and the representation apportioned according to the number of electors in each county.

Every male inhabitant of full age, who has resided in the State six months preceding the day of election, and possessing a freehold to the value of twenty pounds in the county where he is to give his vote, or has rented a tenement therein of the yearly value of forty shillings, and has been rated and actually paid taxes, is entitled to vote for representatives in Assembly. The freedom of the cities of New York and Albany likewise entitles a person to the privilege of voting for members of Assembly in the city or county where he resides. The method of voting is now by ballot, but subject to alteration by the legislature. The house of Assembly, a majority of which is necessary to proceed to business, chooses its own speaker, and is a judge of its own privileges.

In all debates on great questions, the house resolves itself into a committee of the whole; the speaker leaves the chair, and a chairman is appointed for the occasion. After the business is completed, the committee rises, the speaker takes the chair, and the chairman reports to the house the proceedings of the committee. How far this imitation of the British House of Commons is supported by good reasons it may not be easy to determine. Certain it is, that in other legislatures, the proceedings are equally well conducted without this formality.

The number of representatives is limited to three hundred. The present number is sixty-five.

The supreme executive power of the State is vested in a governor, (in whose absence a deputy-governor is appointed to serve) chosen once in three years by the freemen of the State; the lieutenant-governor is, by his office, president of the senate; and, upon an equal division of voices, has a casting vote; but has no voice on other occasions. The governor has not a seat in the legislature; but as a member of the council of revision and council of appointment, he has a vast influence in the State.

The council of revision is composed of the chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, or any of them, and the governor. This council is empowered to revise all bills which have passed the two houses of the legislature, and if it shall appear to the council that such bills ought not to pass into laws, they shall be returned to the house in which they originated, with the objections of the council in writing. The house shall then proceed to reconsider the bills, with the objections, and if notwithstanding, two thirds of the house shall agree to the bills, they shall be sent to the other house, where they shall be reconsidered and the assent of two thirds of the members pass them into laws. But if a bill is not returned in ten days, it becomes a law of course.

The subordinate officers of state are appointed by the *council of appointment*, which is composed of one senator from each district, to be chosen annually by the legislature, with the governor, or in his absence, the lieutenant-governor or the president of the senate, who has a casting vote only.

All military officers hold their commissions during pleasure. The chancellor, the judges of the supreme court, and the first judge of each county court, hold their offices during good behaviour. These officers can hold no other office at the same time, except that of delegate to Congress.

Sheriffs and coroners are appointed annually, and can serve but four years successively.

A court of errors and impeachment is instituted, composed of the president of the senate, the senate, chancellor and judges of the supreme court, or the major part of them,

them, under the regulation of the legislature. The power of impeachment is vested in the House of Representatives, and the members on trial must be sworn.

Besides the court of errors and impeachment, there is, first, a *court of chancery*, consisting of a chancellor appointed by the council of appointment, who holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of sixty years. Secondly, a *supreme court*, the judges of which are appointed in the same manner and for the same time as the chancellor. This is a circuit court. Thirdly, *county courts*, held in each county, the judges of which are appointed in the manner above mentioned, and the first judge holds his office during good behaviour, or until he arrive at the age of sixty years. Besides these, there are the justices' courts, court of probates, court of admiralty, court of exchequer, a court ofoyer and terminer and general gaol delivery, and court of quarter sessions.

The practice in the supreme court, to which an appeal lies from the courts below, is in imitation of the courts of common pleas and king's bench in England.

All free governments abound with lawyers. Where men have the privilege of thinking and acting for themselves, they will involve themselves in debt and quarrel with their neighbours. In proportion to the debts and disputes of the people, lawyers will multiply. Of these America furnishes a plentiful growth, and New York has its share, as it contains not less than 120 licensed attorneys. In this State, the practice of law is conformed to the English mode, and is perhaps better regulated than in the other States. The several degrees in the profession, the number of critical examinations that candidates are obliged to pass through before they can be admitted as counsellors in the higher courts, together with the time of study required by the rules of admission, render an access to the first honors of the bar so difficult as to preclude ignorant pretenders to the important science of law. New York can boast of many eminent characters in all the learned professions, and has furnished America with some of her most able legislators. It is, however, to be feared that a too rigid adherence to the forms of legal process in England has sometimes perplexed the road to justice, and prevented valuable improvements in the practice, not only of this but of most of the other States.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] By official returns of the militia of this State, made to the governor by the adjutant-general, it appears that the total number in 1789, was 42,679; 1790—44,259; 1791—50,399. Besides these there are as many as 5000 or 6000 of the militia in the new settlements, who are not yet organized.

FORTS, &c.] These are principally in ruins. The demolition of the fort in the city of New York has been mentioned. Remains of the fortifications on Long Island, York Island, White Plains, West Point, and other places, are still visible. Fort Stanwix, built by the British in 1758, at the expense, it is said, of 60,000*l.* is 107 miles westward of Skeneclady, on an artificial eminence bordering on the Mohawk river, and in travelling this distance, you pass Fort Hunter, Fort Anthony, Fort Plain, Fort Herkemer, and Fort Schuyler. As you proceed westward of Fort Stanwix, you pass Fort Bull, and Fort Breweton, at the west end of Oneida Lake. Fort George is at the south end of Lake George. At the point where Lake George communicates with Lake Champlain is the famous post of Ticonderoga, by which word the Canadians understand *noisy*. The works at this place are in such a state of dilapidation, that a stranger can scarcely form an idea of their construction. They are, however, situated on such high ground as to command the communication between the lakes George and Champlain. Opposite, on the south side of the water that empties out of Lake George, is a mountain, to appearance inaccessible, called Mount Defiance, where General Burgoyne
in

in the late war, with a boldness, secrecy, and dispatch almost unparalleled, conveyed a number of cannon, stores, and troops. The cannon were raised by large brass tackles from tree to tree, and from rock to rock, over dens of rattle-snakes, to the summit, which entirely commands the works of Ticonderoga. This circumstance must ever be considered as a full justification of General Sinclair's sudden retreat with the American army, and the observation which he made on his trial, in his own defence, that, "though he had lost a post, he had saved a State," was afterwards verified.

Crown Point is fifteen miles north of Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain. The fort at this place, in which a British garrison was always kept, from the reduction of Canada till the American Revolution, was the most regular, and the most expensive of any ever constructed, and supported by the British government in North America. The walls are of wood and earth, about sixteen feet high, and twenty feet thick, and nearly 150 yards square; surrounded by a deep and broad ditch cut through a solid rock. It stands on a rising ground perhaps 200 yards from the lake, with which there was a covered way, by which the garrison could be supplied with water in time of a siege. The only gate opens on the north towards the lake, where there was a draw-bridge. On the right and left, as you enter the fort, are a row of stone barracks, not inelegantly built, sufficient to contain 1500 or 2000 troops; the parade is between them, and is a flat smooth rock. There were several outworks, which are now in ruins, as is the principal fort, except the walls, and the walls of the barracks, which still remain.

BANKS.] There are two or three incorporated Banks in the city of New York, besides a branch of the national bank, and one has lately been established in the city of Albany.

MODE OF RAISING INTERNAL TAXES.] The legislature fix upon the sum to be raised, and apportion it among the several counties. This being done the supervisors, one from each township in the respective counties, assemble and assign to each township its proportion of the quota of the county. The supervisor and assessors in each township then apportion their quota among the individuals of the township, according to the value of their real and personal estates. The tax, thus laid, is collected by the collector of the township, and lodged with the county treasurer, who transmits it to the treasurer of the State.

FINANCES.] A variety of circumstances have conspired to fill the treasury of this State, and wholly to supersede the necessity of taxation for several years past; *first*, confiscations and economical management of that property; *second*, sales of unappropriated lands; and *third*, a duty on imports previous to the establishment of the federal government. The two former were sold for continental certificates, at a time when the credit of the State was perhaps above the par of the Union, which was the cause of getting a large sum of the public debt into the treasury of the State at a depreciated value. These certificates, since the funding system came into operation, added to the assumed State debt, a vast quantity of which was also in the treasury, forms an enormous mass of property, yielding an annuity of upwards of 100,000 dollars; and when the deferred debt shall become a six per cent. stock, this annuity will be increased to upwards of 200,000 dollars.

The ability of the State, therefore, is abundantly competent to aid public institutions of every kind, to make roads, erect bridges, open canals, and to push every kind of improvement to the most desirable length. It could be wished, that those citizens who were exiled during the war, and whose property was exposed during its continuance to wanton depredations, could be thought of by a legislature possessing so fully the means

of discriminating this unhappy class of sufferers, and making them compensation for their voluntary sacrifices.

CURIOSITIES.] In the county of Montgomery is a small, rapid stream, emptying into Scroon Lake, west of Lake George; it runs under a hill, the base of which is 60 or 70 yards diameter, forming a most curious and beautiful arch in the rock, as white as snow. The fury of the water and the roughness of the bottom, added to the terrific noise within, has hitherto prevented any person from passing through the chasm.

In the township of Willsborough, in Clinton county, is a curious Split Rock. A point of a mountain, which projected about 50 yards into Lake Champlain, appears to have been broken by some violent shock of nature. It is removed from the main rock or mountain about twenty feet, and the opposite sides so exactly suit each other, that one needs no other proof of their having been once united. The point broken off contains about half an acre, and is covered with wood. The height of the rock on each side of the fissure is about twelve feet. Round this point is a spacious bay, sheltered from the south-west and north-west winds by the surrounding hills and woods. On the west side are four or five finely cultivated farms, which, altogether, at certain seasons, and in certain situations, form one of the most beautiful landscapes imaginable. "Sailing under this coast for several miles before you come to Split Rock, the mountains, rude and barren, seem to hang over the passenger and threaten destruction. —A water, boundless to the sight, lies before him; man feels his own littleness, and infidelity itself pays an unwilling homage to the Creator. Instantly and unexpectedly the scene changes, and peeping with greedy eye through the fissure, nature presents to the view a silver basin, a verdant lawn, a humble cottage, a golden harvest, a majestic forest, a lofty mountain, an azure sky, rising one above another "in just gradation to the amazing whole."*

"A few months ago a very extraordinary cavern, at a place called by the Indians, Sepascot, on the estate of the Miss Rutfens, at Ryhnbeck, in Dutchess county, was discovered. A lad, by chance, passing near its entrance, which lay between two huge rocks on the declivity of a steep hill, on prying into the gloomy recess, saw the top of a ladder, by which he descended about ten feet, and found himself in a subterraneous apartment, more capacious than he then chose to investigate. He found, however, that it had been the abode of persons, who probably during the war not daring to be seen openly, had taken shelter there, as bits of cloth and pieces of leather were scattered about its floor. He then left the place, and little more was thought of it, until three weeks ago, the writer of this account made one of a large party, who went from the seat of a gentleman in the neighbourhood on purpose to examine it. We found its entrance much smaller than we expected, and with some difficulty gained the ladder, by means of which the remaining descent was made tolerably easy. Two young ladies were with us, who had heroism enough to make the trophimium tour with us. We had six candles to scrutinize the recesses of the apartment, where, perhaps, light, for upwards of five thousand years before, had never gleamed. We found the cave divided by a narrow passage into two divisions; the first being about seventeen feet in length, and so low that a child of eight years old could but just walk upright in it; the breadth is about eight or ten feet. The second between twelve and fourteen feet in length, but much higher and broader than the first. In this last room we found that three bats had taken up their winter quarters, and hung suspended from the roof, as it

* Mr. M. L. Woolsey of Plattsburgh. To this ingenious gentleman, the author is indebted for much valuable information concerning Clinton county.

were, by the very tips of the wings. But what makes the cave peculiarly worthy of notice is the petrifying quality of the water, that by a gentle oozing, continually drops from every part of the ceiling, the whole of which exactly resembles a mill gutter in a frosty morning, with a thousand icicles impending. These concretions are formed by the water, and probably are constantly increasing. They have in almost every respect the appearance of icicles, and may be broken off by the hand if not more than two inches in circumference. They appear of a consistence much like indurated lime, almost transparent, and are all perforated quite through the whole length, with a hole of the size of that in a tobacco pipe, through which aperture the water unremittedly drops, although very slow. When a person is in the remotest room, and the lights are removed into the first, those pendant drops of water make an appearance more splendid than can well be imagined. Some of those stony icicles have at length reached the bottom of the cave, and now form pillars, some of more than two feet in girth, of the appearance of marble, and almost as hard. They put one in mind of Solomon's *Jaclin* and *Boaz*, imagination very easily giving them pedestals and chapiters and even wreathen work.

But what we most admired, was the skeleton of a large snake, turned into solid stone by the petrifying quality of the water before mentioned. It was with some difficulty torn up with an axe from the rock it lay upon (some of which adhered to it) and is now in the possession of the relater.

We found the inmost recesses of this cavern very warm, and experienced the want of free air by a difficult respiration, although the candles burnt very clear."*

INDIANS.] The body of the Six Nations inhabit the western parts of this State. The principal part of the Mohawk tribe reside on Grand river, in Upper Canada; and there are two villages of Senecas on the Allegany river, near the north line of Pennsylvania, and a few Delawares and Skawaghees, on Buffalo Creek. Including these, and the Stockbridge and Mohegan Indians, who have migrated and settled in the vicinity of Oneida, there are, in the Six Nations, according to an accurate estimate lately made by the Rev. Mr. Kirkland, missionary among them, 6330 souls. He adds, that among these there is comparatively but very few children.

The following extract of a letter from Mr. Kirkland to the author will give the reader an idea of the characters, which, according to Indian tradition, are excluded from the happy country: "The region of Pure Spirits, the Five Nations call *Eskanane*. The only characters which, according to their traditions, cannot be admitted to participate of the pleasures and delights of this happy country, are reduced to three, viz. suicides; the disobedient to the counsels of the chiefs; and such as put away their wives on account of pregnancy. According to their tradition, there is a gloomy, fathomless gulph, near the borders of the delightful mansions of *Eskanane*, over which all good and brave spirits pass with safety, under the conduct of a faithful and skilful guide appointed for that purpose; but when a suicide, or any of the above-mentioned characters, approach this gulph, the conductor, who possesses a most penetrating eye, instantly discovers their spiritual features and character, and denies them his aid, assigning his reasons. They will, however, attempt to cross upon a small pole, which, before they reach the middle, trembles and shakes, till presently down they fall with horrid shrieks. In this dark and dreary gulph, they suppose resides a great dog, some say a dragon, infected with the itch, which makes him perpetually restless and spiteful. The guilty inhabitants of this miserable region, all catch this disease of the great dog, and grope and roam from side to side of their gloomy mansion in perpetual torments.

Sometimes

Sometimes they approach so near the happy fields of Eskanane, that they can hear the songs and dances of their former companions. This only serves to increase their torments, as they can discern no light, nor discover any passage by which they can gain access to them. They suppose ideots and dogs go into the same gulph, but have a more comfortable apartment, where they enjoy some little light." Mr. Kirkland adds, that several other nations of Indians with whom he has conversed on the subject, have nearly the same traditionary notions of a future state. They almost universally agree in this, that the departed spirit is ten days in its passage to their happy clysium, after it leaves the body; some of them suppose its course is towards the south; others that it ascends from some lofty mountain.

The *Oneidas* inhabit on Oneida creek, twenty-one miles west of Fort Stanwix.

The *Tuscaroras* migrated from North Carolina and the frontiers of Virginia, and were adopted by the *Oneidas*, with whom they have ever since lived. They were originally of the same nation.

The *Senecas* inhabit on the Chenessee river, at the Chenessee castle. They have two towns of sixty or seventy souls each, on French Creek, in Pennsylvania; and another town on Buffaloe Creek, attached to the British; two small towns on Allegany river, attached to the Americans. Obeil or Cornplanter, one of the Seneca chiefs, resided here.

The *Mohawks* were acknowledged by the other tribes, to use their own expression, to be "the true old heads of the confederacy;" and were, formerly, a powerful tribe, inhabiting on the Mohawk river. As they were strongly attached to the Johnson family on account of Sir William Johnson, they emigrated to Canada, with Sir John Johnson, about the year 1776. There is now only one family of them in the State, and they live about a mile from Fort Hunter. The father of this family was drowned in the winter of 1788.

All the confederated tribes, except the *Oneidas* and *Tuscaroras*, sided with the British in the late war, and fought against the Americans.

The *Onondagas* live near the Onondaga lake, about twenty-five miles from the Oneida lake. In the spring of 1779, a regiment of men were sent from Albany, by General J. Clinton, against the *Onondagas*. This regiment surprized their town, took thirty-three prisoners, killed twelve or fourteen, and returned without the loss of a man. A party of the Indians were at this time ravaging the American frontiers.

There are very few of the *Delaware* tribe in this State.

The Five Confederated Nations were settled along the banks of the Susquehannah, and in the adjacent country, until the year 1779, when General Sullivan, with an army of 4000 men, drove them from their country to Niagara, but could not bring them to action. They waited, but waited in vain, for the assistance of the elements, or, as they expressed themselves, for the assistance of the Great Spirit. Had heavy rains fallen while General Sullivan's army was advanced into their country, perhaps few of his soldiers would have escaped, and none of their baggage, ammunition, or artillery. This expedition had a good effect. General Sullivan burnt several of their towns and destroyed their provisions. Since this irruption into their country, their former habitations have been mostly deserted, and many of them have gone to Canada.

On the 13th of November, 1787, John Livingston, Esq. and four others, obtained of the Six Nations of Indians a lease for 999 years, on a yearly rent reserved of 2000 dollars, of all the country included in the following limits, viz. Beginning at a place commonly known by the name of Canada creek, about seven miles west of Fort Stanwix, now Fort Shuyler, thence north-eastwardly to the line of the province of Quebec;

thence along the said line to the Pennsylvania line; thence east on the said line or Pennsylvania line, to the line of property, so called by the State of New York; thence along the said line of property to Canada Creek aforesaid. And on the 18th of Jan. 1788, the same persons obtained a lease of the Oneida Indians for 999 years, on a rent reserved for the first year, of 1200 dollars, and increasing it at the rate of 100 dollars a year, until it amounts to 1500 dollars, of all the tract of land commonly called the Oneida country, except a reservation of several tracts specified in the lease. But these leases having been obtained without the consent of the legislature of the State, the senate and assembly, in their session, March, 1788, resolved, "That the said leases are purchases of lands, and therefore, that by the constitution of this State, the said leases are not binding on the said Indians, and are not valid." Since this a treaty has been concluded with the said Indians, the bargain of the leases annulled, and all the country purchased of the natives, except a reservation to the Oneidas, Cayugas, and Onondagas, defined by certain marks and boundaries.

ISLANDS.] There are three islands of note belonging to this State, viz. York Island, which has already been described, Long Island, and Staten Island.

Long Island extends 140 miles, and terminates with Montauk point. It is not more than ten miles in breadth on a medium, and is separated from Connecticut by Long Island sound. The island is divided into three counties; King's, Queen's, and Suffolk.

King's County lies at the west end of Long Island, opposite New York, and is not above ten miles long, and eight broad. The inhabitants are principally Dutch, and live well. It contains a number of pleasant villages, of which Flatbush, Brooklyn, and Bedford, are the principal.

Queen's County lies next to King's as you proceed eastward. It is about thirty miles long and twelve broad. Jamaica, Newtown, Hempstead, in which is a handsome court house, and Oysterbay, are the principal villages in this county.

Suffolk County is about 100 miles long and ten broad, and comprehends all the eastern part of the island, and several little islands adjoining; viz. Shelter Island, Fisher's Island, Plum Island, and the Isle of White. Its principal towns are Huntington, Southampton, Smithtown, Brook Haven, East Hampton, in which is the academy, Southhold, and Bridge Hampton.

The south side of the island is flat land, of a light sandy soil, bordered on the sea coast with large tracts of salt meadow, extending from the west point of the island to Southampton. This soil, however, is well calculated for raising grain, especially Indian corn. The north side of the island is hilly, and of a strong soil, adapted to the culture of grain, hay, and fruit. A ridge of hills extends from Jamaica to Southhold. Large herds of cattle feed upon Hempstead plain, and on the salt marshes upon the south side of the island.

Hempstead plain, in Queen's county, is a curiosity. It is sixteen miles in length, east and west, and seven or eight miles wide. The soil is black, and to appearance rich, and yet it was never known to have any natural growth, but a kind of wild grass, and a few shrubs. It is frequented by vast numbers of plover. Rye grows tolerably well on some parts of the plain. The most of it lies common for cattle, horses, and sheep. As there is nothing to impede the prospect in the whole length of this plain, it has a curious but tiresome effect upon the eye, not unlike that of the ocean.

East of this plain, on the middle of the island, is a barren heath, overgrown with shrub oaks and pines, in which it is supposed there are several thousand deer. It is

frequented also by a great number of grouse, a very delicious bird. Laws have been passed for the preservation of these birds and the deer.

It is remarkable that on Montauk point, at the east end of the island, there are no flies. Between this point and East Hampton is a beach, three quarters of a mile wide, in the center of which was found, about fifty years ago, under a sand hill which was blown up by the wind, the entire skeleton of a large whale, nearly half a mile from the water.

There are very few rivers upon the island. The largest is Peakonock, which rises about ten miles west of a place called River-head, where the court house stands, and runs easterly into a large bay dividing Southhold from Southampton. In this bay are Robin and Shelter islands.

The south side of the island is indented with numerous streams of various sizes, which fall into a large bay, two or three miles over, formed by a beach, about eighty rods wide, which appears like a border to the island, extending from the west end of it to Southampton. Through this beach, in various places, are inlets of such depth as to admit of vessels of sixty or seventy tons. This bay was formerly fresh water. Oysters, clams, and fish of various kinds, are caught with ease, and in great plenty in this bay, with seines, during the winter season. It is not uncommon to see forty or fifty vessels here loading with oysters at the same time. And what is almost incredible, though I was told of it by two gentlemen of truth, and who were well informed as to the matter, thirty waggon loads of bass have been caught in this bay at one draught.

Rockonkama pond lies about the center of the island, between Smithtown and Islip, and is about a mile in circumference. This pond has been found by observation, to rise gradually for several years, until it had arrived to a certain height, and then to fall more rapidly to its lowest bed; and thus it is continually ebbing and flowing. The cause of this curious phenomenon has never been investigated. Two miles to the southward of this pond is a considerable stream, called Connecticut river, which empties into the bay.

There are two whale fisheries; one from Sagg harbour, which produces about 1000 barrels of oil annually; the other is much smaller, and is carried on by the inhabitants in the winter season, from the south side of the island. They commonly catch from three to seven whales in a season, which produce from twenty-five to forty barrels each of oil. This fishery was formerly a source of considerable wealth to the inhabitants, but through a scarcity of whales, it has greatly declined of late years.

There is a considerable trade carried on from Sagg harbour, whence is exported to the West Indies, and other places, whale oil, pitch-pine boards, horses, cattle, flaxseed, beef, &c. The produce of the middle and western parts of the island is carried to New York. The island contains 36,949 inhabitants.

Staten Island lies nine miles south-west of the city of New York, and forms Richmond county. It is about eighteen miles in length, and, at a medium, six or seven in breadth, and contains 3,835 inhabitants. On the south side is a considerable tract of level, good land; but the island in general is rough, and the hills high. Richmond is the only town of any note on the island, and that is a poor, inconsiderable place. The inhabitants are principally descendants of the Dutch and French.

HISTORY.] See Smith's History of New York, published by Matthew Carey, and Hazard's Collection of State Papers.

In 1787, the legislature of this State ceded to the commonwealth of Massachusetts, all the lands within their jurisdiction, west of a meridian that shall be drawn from a point

point in the north boundary line of Pennsylvania, eighty-two miles west from the Delaware; (excepting one mile along the east side of Niagara river) and also ten townships between the Chenengo and Owegy rivers, reserving the jurisdiction to the State of New York. This cession was made to satisfy a claim of Massachusetts founded upon their original charter.

A list of GOVERNORS from the year 1664 to the present time.

Names.	Began to govern.	Names.	Began to govern.
Nicolls	1664	Burnet	1720
Lovell	1668	Montgomerie	1728
Andros	1674	Vandam	1731
Brockhuft	1682	Crosby	1732
Dongan	1683	Clarke	1735
Slaughter	1690	Clinton	1743
Ingoldsby	1691	Osborn	1753
Fletcher	1692	De Lancey	1753
Bellemont	1698	Sir Charles Hardy	1755
Nanfan	1699	De Lancey	1757
Bellemont	1700	Colden (President)	1760
Depeyster	1700	Monckton	1761
Smith	1700	Colden	1761
Nanfan	1701	Monckton	1762
Cornbury	1702	Colden	1763
Lovell	1708	Sir Henry Moore	1765
Schuyler	1709	Colden	1769
Ingoldsby	1709	Dunmore	1770
Beckman	1710	Tryon	1771
Hunter	1710	Clinton	1778

NEW JERSEY.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 160 } between { 39° and 41° 24' North Latitude.
 Breadth 52 } { The body of the State lies between the meri-
 dian of Philadelphia, and 1° East Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED east, by Hudson's river and the sea; south, by the sea; west, by Delaware bay and river, which divide it from the States of Delaware and Pennsylvania; north, by a line drawn from the mouth of Mahakamak river, in latitude 41° 24' to a point on Hudson's river in latitude 41°. Containing about 8320 square miles, equal to 5,324,800 acres.

CIVIL DIVISIONS, POPULATION, &c.] New Jersey is divided into thirteen counties, which are subdivided into ninety-four townships or precincts, as follows:

T A B L E.

		Total No. of				
Counties.	Principal Towns.	Len.	Bred.	Inhabitants.	No. Slav.	
These seven counties lie from S. to N. on Delaware river. Cape May and Gloucester extend across to the sea.	Cape May.	None.	30	9	571	141
	Cumberland.	Bridgetown.	50	20	8,248	120
	Salem.	Salem.			10,437	172
	Gloucester.	Woodbury and Gloucester.	30	22	13,360	191
	Burlington.	Burlington & Bordentown.	60	30	18,095	227
	Hunterdon.	Trenton.	37	12	20,253	1,301
	Suffex.	Newtown.			19,500	439
These four counties lie from N. to S. on the Eastern side of the State.	Bergen.	Hackinsak.			12,601	2,301
	Essex.	Newark and Elizabethtown			17,785	1,171
	Middlesex.	Amboy & part of Brunswick.			15,956	1,318
	Monmouth.	Freehold.	80	30	16,918	1,596
	Somerset.	Botndbrook & pt. Brunswick.			12,296	1,810
	Morris.	Morristown.	25	20	16,216	603
Total Thirteen				184,139	11,423	

BAYS, PONDS, RIVERS AND CANALS.] New Jersey is washed, on the east and south-east, by Hudson's river and the ocean; and on the west, by the river Delaware.

The most remarkable bays are, Arthur Kull, or Newark bay, formed by the union of Passaic and Hackinsak rivers. This bay opens to the right and left, and embraces Staten Island. There is a long bay formed by a beach, four or five miles from the shore, extending along the coast north-east and south-west, from Manasquand river, in Monmouth county, almost to Cape May. Through this beach are a number of inlets, by which the bay communicates with the ocean.

On the top of a mountain, in Morris county, is a lake or pond, three miles in length, and from a mile to a mile and an half in breadth, from which proceeds a continual stream. It is in some places deep. The water is of a sea green colour; but when taken up in a tumbler, is, like the water of the ocean, clear and of a crystalline colour.

The rivers in this State, though not large, are numerous. A traveller, in passing the common road from New York to Philadelphia, crosses three considerable rivers, viz. the Hackinsak and Passaic, between Bergen and Newark, and the Raritan by Brunswick. The Hackinsak rises in Bergen county, runs a southwardly course, and empties into Newark bay. At the ferry, near its mouth, it is 460 yards wide, and is navigable fifteen miles.

Passaic is a very crooked river. It rises in a large swamp in Morris county. Its general course is from W. N. W. to E. S. E. until it mingles with the Hackinsak at the head of Newark bay. It is navigable about ten miles, and is 230 yards wide at the ferry. The cataract (or Great Falls) in this river, is one of the greatest natural curiosities in the State. The river is about forty yards wide, and moves in a slow, gentle current,

current, until coming within a short distance of a deep cleft in a rock, which crosses the channel; it descends and falls above seventy feet perpendicularly, in one entire sheet. One end of the cleft, which was evidently made by some violent convulsion in nature, is closed; at the other, the water rushes out with incredible swiftness, forming an acute angle with its former direction, and is received into a large basin, whence it takes a winding course through the rocks, and spreads into a broad smooth stream. The cleft is from four to twelve feet broad. The falling of the water occasions a cloud of vapour to arise, which by floating amidst the sun beams, presents to the view rainbows, that add beauty to the tremendous scene. The new manufacturing town of Patterson is erected upon the Great Falls in this river. The western bank of the river, between Newark and the Falls, affords one of the pleasantest roads for a party of pleasure in New Jersey. The bank being high, gives the traveller an elevated and extensive view of the opposite shore, which is low and fertile, forming a landscape picturesque and beautiful. Many handsome country seats adorn the sides of this river; and there are elegant situations for more. Gentlemen of fortune might here display their taste to advantage. The fish of various kinds with which this river abounds, while they would furnish the table with an agreeable repast, would afford the sportsman an innocent and manly amusement.

Raritan river is formed by two considerable streams called the north and south branches; one of which has its source in Morris, the other in Hunterdon county. It passes by Brunswick and Amboy, and mingles with the waters of the Arthur Kill, and helps to form the fine harbour of Amboy. It is a mile wide at its mouth, two hundred and fifty yards at Brunswick, and is navigable about sixteen miles. It is supposed that this river is capable of a very steady lock navigation, as high as the junction of the north and south branches; and thence up the south branch to Grandin's Bridge in Kingwood. Thence to Delaware river is ten or twelve miles. It is supposed a portage will be here established by a turnpike road: or the waters of the Raritan, may be united with those of the Delaware, by a canal from the south branch of the Raritan to Musconetcong river, which empties into the Delaware, or from Capoolong Creek, a water of the Raritan, emptying at Grandin's Bridge, and Necessackaway, a water of the Delaware. It is supposed also that an inland navigation from Philadelphia to New York may be effected by proceeding up the Asanpink, (a water of the Delaware, emptying at Trenton) towards Princeton; and from thence by a canal to the Millstone, a water of the river to New Brunswick.

At Raritan hills, through which this river passes, is a small cascade, where the water falls fifteen or twenty feet, very romantically, between two rocks. This river opposite to Brunswick is so shallow, that it is fordable at low water with horses and carriages, but a little below it deepens so fast that a twenty gun ship may ride securely at any time of tide. The tide, however, rises so high that large shallops pass a mile above the ford; so that it is no uncommon thing to see vessels of considerable burden riding at anchor, and a number of large river craft lying above, some dry, and others on their beam ends, for want of water, within gunshot of each other.

Bridges have lately been erected, and are now nearly or quite completed (agreeably to laws of the State passed for that purpose) over the Passaic, Hackensack, and Raritan rivers, on the post road between New York and Philadelphia. These bridges will greatly facilitate the intercourse between these two great cities.

Besides these are Cesarea river, or Cohansey creek, which rises in Salem county, and is about thirty miles in length, and navigable for vessels of an hundred tons to Bridgetown, twenty miles from its mouth.

Mulicus river divides the counties of Gloucester and Burlington, and is navigable twenty miles for vessels of sixty tons.

Maurice river rises in Gloucester county, runs southwardly about forty miles, and is navigable for vessels of an hundred tons, fifteen miles, and for shallops ten miles farther.

Alloway Creek, in the county of Salem, is navigable sixteen miles for shallops, with several obstructions of drawbridges. Ancocus Creek, in Burlington county, is also navigable sixteen miles. These, with many other smaller streams, empty into the Delaware, and carry down the produce which their fertile banks and the neighbouring country afford.

That part of the State which borders on the sea, is indented with a great number of small rivers and creeks, such as Great Egg Harbour, and Little Egg Harbour rivers, Navasink, Shark, Matticum, and Forked rivers, which, as the country is flat, are navigable for small craft almost to their sources.

Paulin's Kill, in Sussex county, is navigable for craft fifteen miles; and the Musconetcong, which divides Hunterdon from Sussex, is capable of beneficial improvement, as is the Pequett or Pequasset, between the two last mentioned rivers.

This State is remarkable for mill seats, eleven hundred of which are already improved; five hundred with flour mills, and the rest with saw-mills, fulling mills, forges, furnaces, slitting, and rolling mills, paper, powder, and oil mills.

Sandy Hook, or Point, is in the township of Middletown; and on this point stands a light house, one hundred feet high, built by the citizens of New York.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, MOUNTAINS, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The counties of Sussex, Morris, and the northern part of Bergen, are mountainous. The *South Mountain*, which is one ridge of the great *Alleghany Range*, crosses this State in about latitude 41° . This mountain embosoms such amazing quantities of iron ore, that it may not improperly be called the *Iron Mountain*. The Kittatiny ridge passes through this State north of the South mountain. Several spurs from these mountains are projected in a southern direction. One passes between Springfield and Chatham; another runs west of it, by Morristown, Baskinridge, and Vealtown. The interior country is, in general, agreeably variegated with hills and vallies. The southern counties which lie along the sea coast, are pretty uniformly flat and sandy. The noted Highlands of Navasink, and Center hill, are almost the only hills within the distance of many miles from the sea coast. The Highlands of Navasink are on the sea coast near Sandy Hook, in the township of Middletown, and are the first lands that are discovered by mariners, as they come upon the coast. They rise about six hundred feet above the surface of the water.

As much as five eighths of most of the southern counties, or one fourth of the whole State, is almost a sandy barren waste, unfit in many parts for cultivation. The land on the sea coast in this, like that in the more southern States, has every appearance of *made ground*. The soil is generally a light sand; and by digging, on an average, about fifty feet below the surface, (which can be done, even at the distance of twenty or thirty miles from the sea, without any impediment from rocks or stones) you come to salt marsh. The gentleman who gave this information adds, "I have seen an oyster shell that would hold a pint, which was dug out of the marsh, at fifty feet deep, in digging a well." "About seven years since," continues my informer, "at Long Branch, in the county of Monmouth, in the banks of the Atlantic, which were greatly torn by a great rise of the sea in a violent easterly storm, was discovered the skeleton of some huge carnivorous animal. The country people who first saw it had so little curiosity, as to suffer

it to be wholly destroyed, except a jaw tooth which I saw. This was about two and an half inches wide, five inches long, and as many deep. The person who helped to take it out of the bank assured me, there was one rib seven feet four inches, and another four feet long." The bones of another of these animals has lately been discovered in a meadow, in the county of Gloucester, on the river Delaware, by a negro, who was digging a ditch, 3 or 4 feet deep. Part of these bones were sent to Philadelphia.—To account for these curious phenomena is not my business; this is left for the ingenious naturalist, who has abilities and leisure to compare facts and appearances of this kind, and who probably may thence draw conclusions which may throw much light on the ancient history of this country.

This State has all the varieties of soil from the worst to the best kind. It has a great proportion of barrens. The good land in the southern counties lies principally on the banks of rivers and creeks. The soil on these banks is generally a stiff clay; and while in a state of nature, produces various species of oak, hickory, poplar, chestnut, ash, gum, &c. The barrens produce little else but shrub oaks and yellow pines. These sandy lands yield an immense quantity of bog iron ore, which is worked up to great advantage in the iron works in these counties. There are large bodies of salt meadow along the lower part of the Delaware river and bay, which afford a plentiful pasture for cattle in summer, and hay in winter; but the flies and musketoes frequent these meadows in large swarms, in the months of June, July, and August, and prove very troublesome both to man and beast. In Gloucester and Cumberland counties are several large tracts of banked meadow. Their vicinity to Philadelphia renders them highly valuable. Along the sea-coast the inhabitants subsist principally, by feeding cattle on the salt meadows, and by the fish of various kinds, such as rock, drum, thad, perch, &c. black turtle, crabs, and oysters, which the sea, rivers, and creeks, afford in great abundance. They raise Indian corn, rye, potatoes, &c. but not for exportation. Their swamps afford lumber, which is easily conveyed to a good market. The sugar maple tree is common in Sussex county upon the Delaware.

In the hilly and mountainous parts of the State, which are not too rocky for cultivation, the soil is of a stronger kind, and covered in its natural state with stately oaks, hickories, chestnuts, &c. and when cultivated produces wheat, rye, Indian corn, buck wheat, oats, barley, flax, and fruits of all kinds common to the climate. The land in this hilly country is good for grazing, and farmers feed great numbers of cattle for New York and Philadelphia markets; and many of them keep large dairies, as there are large tracts of fine meadows between the hills.

The orchards in many parts of the State equal any in the United States, and their cyder is said, and not without reason, to be the best in the world. It is pretty certain, that it cannot be surpassed in goodness.

The markets of New York and Philadelphia receive a very considerable proportion of their supplies from the contiguous parts of New Jersey. And it is worthy of remark, that these contiguous parts are exceedingly well calculated, as to the nature and fertility of their soils, to afford these supplies; and the intervention of a great number of navigable rivers and creeks renders it very convenient to market their produce. These supplies consist of vegetables of many kinds, apples, pears, peaches, plums, strawberries, cherries, and other fruits; cyder in large quantities, and of the best quality, butter, cheese, beef, pork, mutton, and the lesser meats.

TRADE.] The trade of this State is carried on almost solely with and from those two great commercial cities, New York on one side, and Philadelphia on the other; though it wants not good ports of its own. Several attempts have been made by the legisla-
ture

ture to secure to the State its own natural advantages, by granting extraordinary privileges to merchants who would settle at Amboy and Burlington, two very commodious ports. But the people having long been accustomed to send their produce to the markets of Philadelphia and New York, and of course having their correspondencies established, and their mode of dealing fixed, they find it difficult to turn their trade from the old channel. Besides, in these large cities, where are so many able merchants, and so many wants to be supplied, credits are more easily obtained, and a better and quicker market is found for produce, than could be expected in towns less populous and flourishing. These and other causes of the same kind have hitherto rendered abortive the encouragements held out by the legislature.

The articles exported, besides those already mentioned, are wheat, flour, horses, live cattle, hams, which are celebrated as being among the best in the world, lumber, flax-seed, leather, iron, in great quantities, in pigs and bars; and formerly copper ore; but the mines have not been worked since the commencement of the late war. The imports consist chiefly of West India goods.

[MANUFACTURES AND AGRICULTURE.] The manufactures of this State have hitherto been very inconsiderable, not sufficient to supply its own consumption, if we except the articles of iron, nails, and leather. A spirit of industry and improvement, particularly in manufactures, has, however, greatly increased in the two last years. Most of the families in the country, and many in the populous towns, are clothed in strong, decent homespun; and it is a happy circumstance for our country, that this plain AMERICAN dress is every day growing more fashionable, not only in this, but in all the States.

In Trenton-Newark and Elizabeth-town, are several very valuable tan-yards, where leather in large quantities, and of an excellent quality, is made and exported to the neighbouring markets. Steel was manufactured at Trenton in the time of the war, but not considerably since.

In Gloucester county is a glass-house. Paper-mills and nail-manufactories are erected and worked to good advantage in several parts of the State. Wheat also is manufactured into flour, and Indian corn into meal, to good account, in the western counties, where wheat is the staple commodity. But the iron manufacture is of all others the greatest source of wealth to the State. Iron works are erected in Gloucester, Burlington, Suffex, Morris, and other counties. The mountains in the county of Morris give rise to a number of streams necessary and convenient for these works, and at the same time furnish a copious supply of wood and ore of a superior quality. In this county alone are no less than seven rich iron mines, from which might be taken ore sufficient to supply the United States; and to work it into iron are two furnaces, two rolling and flitting mills, and about thirty forges, containing from two to four fires each. These works produce annually about 540 tons of bar iron, 800 tons of pigs, besides large quantities of hollow ware, sheet iron, and nail rods. In the whole State, it is supposed there is yearly made about 1200 tons of bar iron, 1200 ditto of pigs, 80 ditto of nail rods, exclusive of hollow ware, and various other castings, of which vast quantities are made.

Early in the late war, a powder-mill was erected in Morristown by Colonel Ford, who was enabled, by the ample supply of salt-petre furnished by the patriotic inhabitants, to make a considerable quantity of that valuable and necessary article, at a time when it was most needed; and when the enemy were at the door, it afforded a timely supply.

A manufacturing company was incorporated, in 1791, by the legislature of this State, and favoured with very great privileges. The better to encourage every kind of manufacture, a subscription was opened, under the patronage of the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, for this important purpose. Each subscriber promised to pay, for every share annexed to his name, 400 dollars to the trustees appointed to receive it. A sum of upwards of 500,000 dollars was almost immediately subscribed, and the directors of the association have since taken the proper measures to carry into effect their extensive plan. They have fixed on the Great Falls in Passaic river, and the ground adjoining, for the erection of the mills, and the town, which they call PATERSON, in honour of the present governor of New Jersey. Every advantage appears to be concentrated in this delightful situation, to make it one of the most eligible in the United States for the permanent establishment of manufactures. Already a large sum of money has been expended, and the works are in forwardness.

Although the bulk of the inhabitants in this State are farmers, yet agriculture has not been improved (a few instances excepted) to that degree, which from long experience we might rationally expect, and which the fertility of the soil, in many places, seems to encourage. A great part of the inhabitants are Dutch, who, although they are in general neat and industrious farmers, have very little enterprise, and seldom adopt any new improvements in husbandry, because, through habits and want of education to expand and liberalise their minds, they think their old modes of tilling the best. Indeed, this is the case with the great body of the common people, and proves almost an insurmountable obstacle to agricultural improvements.

[MINES AND MINERALS.] This State embosoms vast quantities of iron and copper ore. The iron ore is of two kinds; one is capable of being manufactured into malleable iron, and is found in mountains and in low barrens; the other, called bog ore, grows in rich bottoms; and yields iron of a hard, brittle quality, and is commonly manufactured into hollow ware, and used sometimes instead of stone in building.

A number of copper-mines have been discovered in different parts of the State: one is in Bergen county, which when worked by the Schuylers, (to whom it belonged,) was considerably productive; but they have for many years been neglected.

The following account of a copper-mine at New Brunswick is given by a gentleman of distinction, well informed upon the subject:

“About the years 1748, 1749, 1750, several lumps of virgin copper, from five to thirty pounds weight, (in the whole upwards of 200 pounds,) were plowed up in a field belonging to Philip French, Esq. within a quarter of a mile of New Brunswick. This induced Mr. Elias Boudinot, of the city of Philadelphia, to take a lease of Mr. French, of this land, for ninety-nine years, in order to search for copper ore, a body of which, he concluded, must be contained in this hill. He took in several partners, and about the year 1751, opened a pit in the low grounds, about 200 or 300 yards from the river. He was led to this spot by a friend of his, who a little before, passing by at three o'clock in the morning, observed a body of flame arise out of the ground, as large as a common-sized man, and soon after die away. He drove a stake on the spot. About fifteen feet deep, Mr. Boudinot came on a vein of bluish stone, about two feet thick, between two perpendicular loose bodies of red rock, covered with a sheet of pure virgin copper, a little thicker than gold leaf. This bluish stone was filled with sparks of virgin copper, very much like copper-filings, and now and then a large lump of virgin copper, from five to thirty pounds weight. He followed this vein almost thirty feet, when, the water coming in very fast, the expense became

too great for the company's capital. A stamping-mill was erected, when, by reducing the bluish stone to a powder, and washing it in large tubs, the stone was carried off, and the fine copper preserved, by which means many tons of the purest copper were sent to England without ever passing through the fire; but labour was too high to render it possible for the company to proceed. Sheets of copper about the thickness of two pennies, and three feet square, on an average, have been taken from between the rocks, within four feet of the surface, in several parts of the hill. At about fifty or sixty feet deep, they came to a body of fine solid ore in the midst of this bluish vein, but between rocks of a white flinty spar, which, however, was worked out in a few days. These works lie now wholly neglected, although the vein when left was richer than ever it had been. There was also a very rich vein of copper ore discovered at Rocky Hill, in Somerset county, which has also been neglected from the heavy expense attending the working of it. There have been various attempts made to search the hills beyond Boundbrook, known by the name of Van Horne's mountain, but for the same reason is now neglected. This mountain discovers the greatest appearance of copper ore of any place in the State: it may be picked up on the surface of many parts of it. A smelting-furnace was erected before the revolution, in the neighbourhood, by two Germans, who were making very considerable profit on their work, until the British destroyed it in the beginning of the war. The inhabitants made it worth their while by collecting the ore from the surface, and by partially digging into the hill, to supply the furnace. Besides, a company opened a very large shaft on the side of the hill, from which also a great deal of valuable ore and some virgin copper were taken. Two lumps of virgin copper were found here in the year 1754, which weighed 1900 pounds."

A lead-mine has been discovered in Hopewell township, four miles from Trenton. There is said to be coal on Raritan river, below Brunswick, and at Pluckemin; and turf in Bethlehem, at the head of its south branch; and also at Springfield on Raway river, which is remarkable for mill seats.

CURIOUS SPRINGS.] In the upper part of the county of Morris is a cold mineral spring, which is frequented by valetudinarians, and its waters have been used with very considerable success. In the township of Hanover, in this county, on a ridge of hills, are a number of wells, which regularly ebb and flow about six feet, twice in every twenty-four hours. These wells are nearly forty miles from the sea in a straight line. In the county of Cape May is a spring of fresh water, which boils up from the bottom of a salt water creek, which runs nearly dry at low tide; but at flood tide is covered with water directly from the ocean, to the depth of three or four feet; yet in this situation, by letting down a bottle, well corked, through the salt-water into the spring, and immediately drawing the cork with a string prepared for the purpose, it may be drawn up full of fine, untainted fresh water. There are springs of this kind in other parts of the State. In the county of Hunterdon, near the top of Muskonetcong mountain, is a noted medicinal spring, to which invalids resort from every quarter. It issues from the side of a mountain, and is conveyed into an artificial reservoir for the accommodation of those who wish to bathe in, as well as to drink, the waters. It is a strong chalybeate, and very cold. These waters have been used with very considerable success; but perhaps the exercise necessary to get to them, and the purity of the air in this lofty situation, aided by a lively imagination, have as great efficacy in curing the patient as the waters.

A curious spring has been discovered, about 200 yards from the south branch of Raritan river, from which, even in the driest seasons, a small stream issues, except when

when the wind continues to blow from the north-west for more than two days successively, when it ceases to run; and if the water be taken out of the cask placed in the ground, it will remain empty until the wind changes, when it is again filled and flows as usual.

CAVES, MONUMENTS, &c.] In the township of Shrewsbury, in Monmouth county, on the side of a branch of Navesink river, is a remarkable cave, in which there are three rooms. The cave is about thirty feet long and fifteen feet broad. Each of the rooms are arched; the center of the arch is about five feet from the bottom of the cave; the sides not more than two and an half. The mouth of the cave is small; the bottom is a loose sand; and the arch is formed in a soft rock, through the pores of which the moisture is slowly exudated, and falls in drops on the sand below.

On Sandy Hook, about a mile from the light-house, is a monument, which was erected to commemorate a very melancholy event that took place just at the close of the late war. The following inscription, which is upon a marble plate on one side of the monument, will afford sufficient information of the matter:

"Here lies the remains of the honourable Hamilton Douglass Halliburton, son of Sholto Charles, Earl of Morton, and heir of the ancient family of Halliburton of Pitcurr in Scotland; who perished on this coast with twelve more young gentlemen, and one common sailor, in the spirited discharge of duty, the 30th or 31st of December, 1783; born October 10th 1763: a youth who, in contempt of hardship and danger, though possessed of an ample fortune, served seven years in the British navy with a manly courage. He seemed to be deserving of a better fate. To his dear memory, and that of his unfortunate companions, this monumental stone is erected by his unhappy mother Katharine, Countess Dowager of Morton.

{	<i>James Champion,</i>	Lieutenant of Marines.	
{	<i>Alexander Johnson,</i>		
{	<i>George Paddy,</i>		
{	<i>Robert Heywood,</i>		
			} Midshipmen.

{	<i>Charles Gascoigne,</i>		} Young Gentlemen	{	<i>William Tomlinson,</i>
{	<i>Andrew Hamilton,</i>			{	<i>John M'Chair,</i>
{	<i>William Scott,</i>			{	<i>William Spray,</i>
{	<i>David Reddie,</i>			{	<i>Robert Wood,</i>

George Towers, Sailor.

Cast away in pursuit of deserters; all found dead, and buried in this grave.

Of his Britannic Majesty's Ship Assistance,
Mr. HALLIBURTON, First Lieutenant."

POPULATION.] According to the census of 1790, as given in the Table, there were in this State 184,139 inhabitants, of whom 11,423 were slaves. The average population for every square mile is nearly 22. The number of inhabitants in this State was in 1738—47,369, including 3981 slaves; in 1745—61,403, including 4606 slaves; in 1784—140,435, including 1939 slaves. This year there were 10,501 blacks, of which 1939 only were returned as slaves.

The average annual increase since 1738 has been 2630, exclusive of emigrations, which, since 1783, have been numerous to the country west of the Allegany Mountains. These emigrations will lessen in proportion as the inhabitants turn their attention to manufactures.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Many circumstances concur to render these various in different parts of the State. The inhabitants are a collection of Low Dutch, Germans, English, Scotch, Irish, and New Englanders, or their descendants. National attachment, and mutual convenience, have generally induced these several kinds of people to settle together in a body, and in this way their peculiar national manners, customs, and characters are still preserved, especially among the poorer class of people, who have little intercourse with any but those of their own nation. Religion, although its tendency is to unite people in those things that are essential to happiness, occasions wide differences as to manners, customs, and even character. The Presbyterian, the Quaker, the Episcopalian, the Baptist, the German and Low Dutch Calvinist, the Methodist, and the Moravian, have each their distinguishing characteristics, either in their worship, their discipline, or their dress. There is still another characteristical difference, distinct from either of the others, which arises from the intercourse of the inhabitants with different States. The people in West Jersey trade to Philadelphia, and of course imitate their fashions and imbibe their manners. The inhabitants of East Jersey trade to New York, and regulate their fashions and manners according to those in New York. So that the difference, in regard to fashions and manners, between East and West Jersey, is nearly as great as between New York and Philadelphia. Add to all these the differences common in all countries, arising from the various occupations of men, such as the civilian, the divine, the lawyer, the physician, the mechanic; the clownish, the decent, and the respectable farmer, all of whom have different pursuits, or pursue the same thing differently, and of course must have different ideas and manners. When we take into view all these differences, (and all these differences exist in New Jersey, and many of them in all the other States) it cannot be expected that many general observations will apply. It may, however, in truth be said, that the people of New Jersey are generally industrious, frugal, and hospitable. There are, comparatively, but few men of learning in the State, nor can it be said, that the people in general have a taste for the sciences. The poorer class, in which may be included a considerable proportion of the inhabitants of the whole State, are inattentive to the education of their children, who are but too generally left to grow up in ignorance. There are, however, a number of gentlemen of the first rank in abilities and learning in the civil offices of the State, and in the several learned professions.

It is not the business of a geographer to compliment the ladies; nor would we be thought to do it, when we say, that there is at least as great a number of industrious, discreet, amiable, genteel, and handsome women in New Jersey, in proportion to the number of inhabitants, as in any of the Thirteen States.

RELIGION.] There are in this State, about fifty Presbyterian congregations, subject to the care of three Presbyteries, viz. That of New York, of New Brunswick, and Philadelphia. A part of the charge of New York and Philadelphia Presbyteries lies in New Jersey, and part in their own respective States.

Besides these, there are upwards of forty congregations of Friends, thirty of the Baptists, twenty-five of Episcopalians, twenty-eight of Dutch Reformed, besides Methodists, and a settlement of Moravians.

All these religious denominations live together in peace and harmony; and are allowed, by the constitution of the State, to worship Almighty God agreeably to the dictates of their own consciences; and are not compelled to attend or support any worship contrary to their own faith and judgement. All Protestant inhabitants of peaceable behaviour are eligible to the civil offices of the State.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] There are two colleges in New Jersey; one at Princetown, called Nassau Hall; the other at Brunswick, called Queen's College. The college at Princetown was first founded by charter from John Hamilton, Esq. President of the Council, about the year 1738, and enlarged by Governor Belcher in 1747. The charter delegates a power of granting to "the students of said college, or to any others thought worthy of them, all such degrees as are granted in either of our Universities, or any other college in Great Britain." It has twenty-three trustees. The governor of the State, and the president of the college are, *ex officiis*, two of them. It has an annual income of about 900*l.* currency; of which 200*l.* arise from funded public securities and lands, and the rest from the fees of the students.

The president of the college is also professor of eloquence, criticism, and chronology. The vice-president is also professor of divinity and moral philosophy. There is also a professor of mathematics and natural philosophy, and two masters of languages. The four classes in college contain commonly from 70 to 100 students. There is a grammar-school of about 20 scholars, connected with the college, under the superintendence of the president, and taught sometimes by a senior scholar, and sometimes by a graduate.

Before the war, this college was furnished with a philosophical apparatus, worth 500*l.* which (except the elegant Orrery constructed by Mr. Rittenhouse) was almost entirely destroyed by the British army in the late war, as was also the library, which now consists of between 2000 and 3000 volumes.

The college edifice is handsomely built with stone, and is 180 feet in length, 54 in breadth, and four stories high; and is divided into 42 convenient chambers for the accommodation of the students, besides a dining-hall, chapel, and room for the library. Its situation is elevated and exceedingly pleasant and healthful. It is remarkable, that since the removal of the college to Princetown in 1756, there have been but five or six deaths among the students. The view from the college balcony is extensive and charming.

The college has been under the care of a succession of presidents, eminent for piety and learning; and has furnished a number of civilians, divines, and physicians of the first rank in America.*

The charter for Queen's College, at Brunswick, was granted just before the war, in consequence of an application from a body of the Dutch church. Its funds, raised wholly by free donations, amounted, soon after its establishment, to 4000*l.* but they were considerably diminished by the war. The grammar-school, which is connected with the college, consists of between thirty and forty students, under the care of the trustees. The college at present is not in a very flourishing state.

There are a number of good academies in this State. One at Freehold, in the county of Monmouth; another at Trenton, in which are about 80 students in the different branches. It has a fund of about 150*l.* per annum, arising from the interest on public securities. Another in Hackensack, in the county of Bergen, of upwards of

* Accessus.	Presidents.		Exitus.
1746	Rev. Jonathan Dickinson,	-	1747
1748	Rev. Aaron Burr,	-	1757
1758	Rev. Jonathan Edwards,	-	1758
1758	Rev. Samuel Davies,	-	1760
1761	Rev. Samuel Finley, D. D.	-	1766
1767	Rev. John Witherspoon, D. D.		

an hundred scholars. Instruction and board are said to be cheaper here than in any other part of the State. There is another flourishing academy at Orangedale, in the county of Essex, consisting of nearly as many scholars as any of the others, furnished with able instructors and good accommodations. Another has lately been opened at Elizabethtown, and consists of upwards of twenty students in the languages, and is increasing. An academy, by the name of Burlington academy, has lately been established at Burlington, under the direction of seven trustees, and the instruction of two preceptors. The system of education adopted in this academy, is designed to prepare the scholars for the study of the more difficult classics and the higher branches of science in a college or university. At Newark, an academy was founded in June 1792, and promises to be a useful institution. Besides these, there are grammar schools at Springfield, Morristown, Bordentown, and Amboy. There are no regular establishments for common schools in the State. The usual mode of education is for the inhabitants of a village or neighbourhood to join in affording a temporary support for a schoolmaster, upon such terms as are mutually agreeable. But the encouragement which these occasional teachers meet with, is generally such, as that no person of abilities adequate to the business, will undertake it; and of course, little advantage is derived from these schools. The improvement in these common schools is generally in proportion to the pay of the teacher. It is therefore much to be regretted that the legislature do not take up this subject and adopt some such method of supporting public schools as has been practised upon with visible good success in some of the New England States.

CHIEF TOWNS.] There are a number of towns in this State, nearly of equal size and importance, and none that has more than about two hundred houses compactly built. **TRENTON** is one of the largest towns in New Jersey and the capital of the State. It is situated on the north-east side of the river Delaware, opposite the falls, nearly in the center of the State, from north to south, in latitude $40^{\circ} 15'$, and about $20'$ east of the meridian of Philadelphia. The river is not navigable above these falls, except for boats which will carry from five to seven hundred bushels of wheat. This town, with Lambertton, which joins it on the south, contains upwards of two hundred houses, and about 2000 inhabitants. Here the legislature stately meets, the supreme courts sit, and most of the public offices are kept. The inhabitants have lately erected a handsome court house 100 feet by 50, with a semi-hexagon at each end, over which is to be a ballustrade. In the neighbourhood of this pleasant town are several gentlemen's seats, finely situated on the banks of the Delaware, and ornamented with taste and elegance. This town, being a thoroughfare between the eastern parts of the State and Philadelphia, has a considerable inland trade.

BURLINGTON (city) extends three miles along the Delaware, and one mile back, at right angles, into the county of Burlington, and is twenty miles above Philadelphia by water, and seventeen by land. The island, which is the most populous part of the city, is a mile and a quarter in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth. It has four entrances over bridges and causeways, and a quantity of bank meadow adjoining. On the island are about 160 houses, 1000 white and 100 black inhabitants. But few of the Negroes are slaves. The main streets are conveniently spacious, and mostly ornamented with trees in the fronts of the houses, which are regularly arranged. The Delaware, opposite the town, is about a mile wide; and under shelter of Mittenicunk and Burlington Islands, affords a safe and convenient harbour. It is commodiously situated for trade, but is too near the opulent city of Philadelphia to admit of any considerable increase of foreign com-

merce.

merce. There are two houses for public worship in the town, one for the Friends or Quakers, who are the most numerous, and one for Episcopalians. The other public buildings are two market houses, a court house, and the best gaol in the State. Besides these, there is an academy already mentioned, a free school, a nail manufactory, and an excellent distillery, if that can be called excellent which produces a poison both of health and morals.

The city was a free port under the State. The mayor, recorder, and aldermen hold a commercial court, when the matter in controversy is between foreigners and foreigners, or between foreigners and citizens. The island of Burlington was laid out, and the first settlements made as early as 1677. In 1682, the island of Mittenicunk, or Free School Island, was given for the use of the island of Burlington; the yearly profits arising from it (which amount to 180l.) are appropriated for the education of poor children.

PERTH AMBOY (city) took its name from James Drummond, Earl of Perth, and Ambo, the Indian word for point, and stands on a neck of land included between Raritan river and Arthur Kill sound. Its situation is high and healthy. It lies open to Sandy Hook, and has one of the best harbours on the continent. Vessels from sea may enter it in one tide in almost any weather. Great efforts have been made, and legislative encouragements offered, to render it a place of trade, but without success. This town was early incorporated with city privileges, and continued to send two members to the General Assembly until the revolution: until this event, it was the capital of East Jersey; and the legislature and supreme court used to sit here and at Burlington alternately.

BRUNSWICK (city) was incorporated in 1784, and is situated on the south-west side of Raritan river, over which a fine bridge has lately been built, twelve miles above Amboy. It contains about two hundred houses, and nearly two thousand inhabitants, one half of whom are Dutch. Its situation is low and unpleasant, being on the bank of a river, and under a high hill which rises at the back of the town. The ice, at the breaking up of the river in winter, frequently lodges on the shallow fording place just opposite the town, and forms a temporary dam, which occasions the water to rise many feet above its usual height, and sometimes to overflow the lower floors of those houses which are not guarded against this inconvenience by having their foundations elevated. The streets are raised and paved with stone. The water in the springs and wells is generally bad. The inhabitants are beginning to build on the hill above the town, which is very pleasant, and commands a pretty prospect. The citizens have a considerable inland trade, and several small vessels belonging to the port.

PRINCETOWN is a pleasant village, of about 80 houses, 52 miles from New York, and 42 from Philadelphia. Its public buildings are a large college edifice of stone, already described, and a Presbyterian church built of brick. Its situation is remarkably healthy.

ELIZABETHTOWN (borough) is fifteen miles from New York. Its situation is pleasant, and its soil equal in fertility to any in the State. In the compact part of the town there are about one hundred and fifty houses. The public buildings are a very handsome Presbyterian brick church lately built,* an Episcopal church also of brick, and an academy. This is one of the oldest towns in the State. It was purchased of the Indians as early as 1664, and was settled soon after.

* Their former church, which was very elegant, was burnt in 1780, by a refugee, who was a native, and an inhabitant of Elizabethtown.

NEWARK is seven miles from New York. It is a handsome, flourishing town, about the size of Elizabethtown, and has two Presbyterian churches, one of which is of stone, and is the largest and most elegant building in the State. Besides these there is an episcopal church, a court-house and gaol. This town is celebrated for the excellence of its cyder, and is the seat of the largest shoe manufactory in the State: the average number made daily throughout the year, is estimated at about 200 pair.

PRACTICE OF PHYSICK.] There is a "Medical Society" in this State, consisting of about thirty of their most respectable physicians, who meet twice a year. No person is admitted to the practice of physic without a licence from the supreme court, founded on a certificate from this society, or at least two of its members, testifying his skill and abilities. It is remarkable that in the county of Cape May, no regular physician has ever found support. Medicine has been administered by women, except in some extraordinary cases.

PRACTICE OF LAW.] No person is permitted to practise as an attorney in any court without a licence from the governor. This cannot be obtained unless the candidate shall be above twenty-one years of age, and shall have served a regular clerkship with some licensed attorney for four years, and have taken a degree in some public college, otherwise he must serve five years. This regulation is considered by some as a depreciation of rights in regard to citizens of other States; and a bar to the progress of knowledge. He must also submit to an examination by three of the most eminent counsellors in the State, in the presence of the judges of the supreme court. After three years practice as an attorney, he becomes a candidate for a counsellor's licence, which is granted on a like examination. Many of the people here, however, as in other States, think (because perhaps they are instruments in obliging them to pay their debts) that the lawyers know too much. But their knowledge will not injure those who are innocent, and who will let them alone. Experience has verified this observation in the county of Cape May. No lawyer lives within sixty miles of that county, and it is seldom that they attend their courts.

CONSTITUTION.] The government of this State, agreeable to their constitution, is vested in a governor, legislative council, and general assembly. The governor is chosen annually, by the council and assembly jointly, and is styled, "Governor and commander in chief in and over the State of New Jersey, and the territories thereunto belonging, chancellor and ordinary of the same." The legislative council is composed of one member from each county, chosen annually by the people. They must be worth one thousand pounds in real and personal estate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants of the counties they represent for one year. The General Assembly is composed of three members from each county chosen as above; each of them must be worth five hundred pounds, in real and personal estate within the county, and have been freeholders and inhabitants as above. Each of these, on taking his seat in the legislature, must swear "that he will not assent to any law, vote, or proceeding, which shall appear to him injurious to the public welfare of the state, or that shall annul or repeal that part of the constitution which establishes annual elections, nor that part respecting trial by jury, nor that which secures liberty of conscience."

The governor sits in, and presides over the legislative council, and has a casting vote in their debates. His privy or executive council is composed of any three members of the legislative council: and the governor and any seven members of the council
are

are a court of appeals in the last resort, as to points of law in civil cases, and possess a power of pardoning criminals in all cases whatsoever. The council chuse one of their members to be vice-president, who, when the governor is absent from the State, possesses the supreme executive power. The council may originate any bills, except preparing and altering any money bill, which is the sole prerogative of the Assembly: in every other respect their powers are equal. Every bill is read three times in each house. None of the judges of the supreme court, or other courts, sheriffs, or any person possessed of any post of profit under the governor, except justices of the peace, is entitled to a seat in the Assembly. The estate of a suicide is not forfeited for his offence.

COURTS OF JUSTICE, LAWS, &c.] The courts of justice in this State are, first, *Justices Courts*. A competent number of persons are appointed in each county by the council and assembly in joint meeting, who are called justices of the peace, and continue in office five years; who, besides being conservators of the peace, agreeably to the English laws, are authorized to hold courts for the trial of causes under twelve pounds. From this court, persons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter sessions.

Secondly, *Courts of Quarter Sessions of the Peace*, are held quarterly in every county, by at least three of the justices. This court takes cognizance of breaches of the peace, and is generally regulated by the rules of the English law.

Thirdly, *Courts of Common Pleas*, which are held quarterly by judges appointed for that purpose, in the same manner as the justices of the peace, and who are commonly of their number, and hold their commissions five years. This court may be held by a single judge, and has cognizance of demands to any amount, and is constructed on, and governed by, the principle of the English laws.

Fourthly, *Supreme Courts*, which are held four times in a year, at Trenton, by three judges appointed for that purpose, who hold their offices three years; but one judge only is necessary to the holding this court. This court has cognizance of all actions, both civil and criminal, throughout the State, having the united authority of the courts of king's bench, common pleas, and exchequer in England. The courts of oyer and terminer and nisi prius, commonly held once a year in each county, for the trial of causes arising in the county, and brought to issue in the supreme court, are properly branches of this court, and are held by one of the judges of it, except that in the courts of oyer and terminer, some of the gentlemen of the county are always added in the commission as assistants to the judge; but they cannot hold the court without him.

Fifthly, *Orphan's Courts*, lately established by act of Assembly, are held by the judges of the court of common pleas, *ex officio*, and have cognizance of all matters relating to wills, administration, &c.

Sixthly, *Court of Chancery*, held by the governor *ex officio*, always open. It is a court of law and equity, founded on the same principles, and governed by the same rules, as the court of chancery in England.

Seventhly, *High Court of Errors and Appeals*, composed of the governor, and seven of the council, and is a court of appeals in the last resort, in all cases of law.

All the English laws which had been practised upon in the State, and which are not repugnant to revolution principles, were adopted by the constitution, and very few alterations of consequence have since been made, except in the descent of the real estates, which, instead of descending to the eldest son, agreeably to the old feudal system, as formerly, are now divided (where there is no will) two shares to each son,

and one share to each daughter; i. e. the sons have double the daughter's portions, but all the sons have equal portions, and all the daughters.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] The military strength of New Jersey consists of a militia, of between 30,000 and 40,000 men.

HISTORY.] See Smith's History of New Jersey—and Hazard's State Papers.

This State was the seat of war for several years, during the contest between Great Britain and America. Her losses both of men and property, in proportion to the population and wealth of the State, was greater than of any other of the Thirteen States. When General Washington was retreating through the Jerseys, almost forsaken by all others, her militia were at all times obedient to his orders; and for a considerable length of time, composed the strength of his army. There is hardly a town in the State that lay in the progress of the British army, that was not rendered signal by some enterprize or exploit. At Trenton the enemy received a check, which may be said with justice to have turned the tide of war. At Princeton, the seat of the muses, they received another, which, united, obliged them to retire with precipitation, and take refuge in disgraceful winter quarters. But whatever honour this State might derive from the relation, it is not our business to give a particular description of battles or sieges; we leave this to the pen of the historian, and only observe in general, that the many military achievements performed by the Jersey soldiers, give this State one of the first ranks among her sisters in a military view, and entitle her to a share of praise in the accomplishment of the late glorious revolution that bears no proportion to her size.

GOVERNORS of NEW JERSEY, *from the surrender of the Government by the PROPRIETORS in 1702, to the present time.*

- † Edward, Viscount Cornbury, 1702 to 1708, removed and succeeded by
- † John, Lord Lovelace, 1708 to 1709, died and the government devolved to
- Lt. Gov. Richard. Ingoldby, 1709 to 1710, when came in
- † Brigadier Robert Hunter, 1710 to 1720, who resigned in favour of
- † William Burnet, 1720 to 1727, removed and succeeded by
- † John Montgomery, 1728 to 1731, died and was succeeded by
- † William Crosby, 1731 to 1736, died and the government devolved to
- John Anderson, *President of the Council*, 1736, by whose death about two weeks after the government devolved to
- John Hamilton, *President of the Council*, 1736 to 1738
- Those marked † were Governors in chief, and down to this time were Governors of New York and New Jersey, but from 1738 forward, New Jersey has had a separate governor.
- † Lewis Morris, 1738 to 1746, died and the government devolved to
- John Hamilton, *President*, 1746 ——— by whose death it devolved to
- John Reading, *President*, 1746 to 1747
- † Jonathan Belcher 1747 to 1757, died and the government again devolved to
- John Reading, *President*, 1757 to 1758.
- Thomas Pownall, then Governor of Massachusetts, being Lieutenant-governor, arrived on the death of Governor Belcher, but continued in the province a few days only.

† Francis

† Francis Bernard,	1758 to 1760, removed to Boston and succeeded by
† Thomas Boone,	1760 to 1761, removed to S. Carolina and succeeded by
† Josiah Hardy,	1761 to 1763, removed and succeeded by
† William Franklin,	1763 to 1776, removed and succeeded by
† William Livingston,	1776 to 1790, died and succeeded by
† William Patterson,	1791—

PENNSYLVANIA.

Miles.	SITUATION AND EXTENT.	Sq. Miles.
Length 288 } Breadth 156 }	between { 70° 20' E. and 50° W. Longitude. } { 39° 43' and 42° N. Latitude. }	44,900

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED east, by Delaware river, which divides it from New Jersey; north, by New York, and a territory of about 202,000 acres, on Lake Erie, purchased of Congress by this State; north-west, by a part of Lake Erie, where there is a good port; west, by the Western Territory, and a part of Virginia; south, by a part of Virginia, Maryland, and Delaware. The State lies in the form of a parallelogram.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Pennsylvania is divided into twenty-two counties, which, with their county town, situation, &c. are mentioned in the following table, as also the various kinds of mines and minerals in the State.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	Situation.	Settle.	Mines, &c.
Philadelphia	54,391	Philadelphia	on Delawa. R.	All	
Chester	27,937	West Chester	ditto	All	Iron ore
Delaware	9,483	Chester	ditto	All	
Bucks	25,401	Newtown	ditto	All	Iron ore & lead
Montgomery	22,929	Norristown	on Schuylk R.	All	Iron ore
Lancaster	36,147	Lancaster	on Susqueh. R.	All	Iron ore & cop.
Dauphin	18,177	Harrisburgh	ditto	$\frac{3}{4}$	Iron ore
Berks	30,179	Reading	on Schuylk R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	I. ore, coal mi. &c.
Northampton	24,250	Easton	on Delawa. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Iron ore
Luzerne	4,904	Wilksburgh	on Susqueh. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	I. ore, coal mi. &c.
York	37,747	York	ditto	$\frac{3}{4}$	Iron ore
Cumberland	18,243	Carlisle	ditto	$\frac{3}{4}$	I. ore & lead min.
Northumberland	17,161	Sunbury	on W. bran. Su. *	$\frac{1}{10}$	I. ore, salt sp.
Franklin	15,655	Chamberston	on Susqueh. R.	$\frac{3}{4}$	Iron ore
Bedford	13,124	Bedford	on Juniata R.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Iron mines, &c.
Huntington	7,565	Huntington	ditto	$\frac{1}{4}$	Coal & lead mi.
Mifflin	7,562	Lewisburgh	ditto	$\frac{1}{4}$	Iron ore
Westmoreland	16,018	Greensburgh	on Allegany R.	$\frac{1}{4}$	Coal mines
Fayette	13,325	Union	on Mononga.	$\frac{1}{2}$	Coal & iron min.
Washington	23,866	Washington	S.W. cor. State	$\frac{1}{4}$	ditto, ditto
Allegany	10,309	Pittsburgh	on Allegany R.	$\frac{1}{4}$	ditto, ditto
Total	434,373		3 H 2		RIVERS,

* A very large proportion of the vacant lands in the State are in this county, (Northumberland) to the amount of about eight millions of acres.

RIVERS, CANALS, &c.] There are six considerable rivers which, with their numerous branches, peninsulate the whole State, viz. The Delaware, Schuylkill, Susquehannah, Youghiogeny, Monongahela, and Allegany. The bay and river Delaware are navigable from the sea up to the great or lower falls at Trenton, 155 miles; and are accommodated with a light house, on Cape Henlopen, and with buoys and piers for the direction and safety of ships. The distance of Philadelphia from the sea is about 60 miles across the land in a S. W. course, to the New Jersey coast, and 120 miles by the ship channel of the Delaware. So far it is navigable for a 74 gun ship. Sloops go 35 miles farther, to Trenton falls. The river is navigable for boats that carry eight or nine tons, an hundred miles farther, and for Indian canoes, except several small falls or portages, 150 miles. At Easton it receives the Lehigh from the west, which is navigable thirty miles. The tide sets up as high as Trenton Falls, and at Philadelphia rises generally about five or six feet. A north-east and east wind raises it higher.

Between Cape Henlopen and Cape May is the entrance into the Delaware bay. The entrance into the river is twenty miles farther up, at Bombay Hook, where the river is four or five miles wide. From Bombay Hook to Reedy Island is twenty miles. This island is the rendezvous of outward bound ships in autumn and spring, waiting for a favourable wind. The course from this to the sea is S. S. E. so that a N. W. wind, which is the prevailing wind in these seasons, is fair for vessels to put out to sea. This river is generally frozen one or two months in the year at Philadelphia, so as to prevent navigation, but vessels may at all times make a secure harbour at Port Penn, at Reedy Island, where piers have been erected by the State. Vessels are generally from twelve to twenty-four hours in ascending this beautiful river to Philadelphia; and the navigation is safe, and in the milder seasons, especially in the summer, is indescribably pleasant.

From Chester to Philadelphia, twenty miles by water and fifteen by land, the channel of the river is narrowed by islands of marsh, which are generally banked and turned into rich and *immensely valuable* meadows.

Billingsport, twelve miles below Philadelphia, was fortified in the late war for the defence of the channel. Opposite this fort, several large frames of timber, headed with iron-spikes, called chevaux de frizes, were sunk to prevent the British ships from passing. Since the peace, a curious machine has been invented in Philadelphia to raise them.

The Schuylkill rises north-west of the Kittatinny mountains, through which it passes, into a fine champaign country, and runs, from its source, upwards of 120 miles in a south-east direction, and passing through the limits of the city of Philadelphia falls into the Delaware opposite Mud Island, six or seven miles below the city. It is navigable from above Reading, eighty-five or ninety miles to its mouth. There are four floating bridges thrown across it, made of logs fastened together, and lying upon the water, in the vicinity of Philadelphia.

The N. E. branch of the Susquehannah river rises in lakes Otsego and Otego, in the State of New York, and runs in such a winding course as to cross the boundary line between New York and Pennsylvania three times. It receives Tyoga river, one of its principal branches, in lat. $41^{\circ} 57'$, three miles south of the boundary line. The Susquehannah branch is navigable for batteaux to its source, whence, to Mohawk river, is but twenty miles. The Tyoga branch is navigable fifty miles for batteaux; and its source is but a few miles from the Chenessee, which empties into lake Ontario. From Tyoga point, the river proceeds south-east to Wyoming without any obstruction

sion by falls, and then south-east, over Wyöming falls, till at Sunbury, in about lat. 41°, it meets the west branch of Susquehannah, which is navigable ninety miles from its mouth, and some of the branches of it are navigable fifty miles, and approach very near some of the boatable branches of the Allegany river. This noble river is passable to Middletown, (below Harris' Ferry) with boats, carrying several hundred bushels, and with rafts of boards, &c. from the State of New York, as well as down the Tyoga, and Juniata branches, several hundred miles, in their different windings, but it is attended with difficulty and danger on account of the numerous falls below Middletown. About fifteen miles above Harrisburg, it receives the Juniata from the north-west, proceeding from the Allegany mountains, and flowing through a mountainous, broken, yet cultivable country. This river is navigable 120 miles from its mouth.

The Swetara, which falls into the Susquehannah from the north-east, is navigable fifteen miles. About half a mile from the mouth of this river, and a mile from Middletown, is a grist mill, which merits particular notice. It is a very large and handsome stone building, has four pair of stones, and is perhaps in every respect one of the most complete in the State. But the most remarkable circumstance relative to it, is the Race, which is a canal from twenty to thirty feet wide, and carried with such a degree of boldness to a length of 476 rods or perches, through rocks and hills, and every obstacle in its course, as cannot fail to excite a very high idea of the enterprize and persevering industry of Mr. George Frey, the undertaker and owner.

From Swetara to the Tulpehoken branch of Schuylkill, a canal and lock navigation is undertaken, and the works commenced, by an incorporated company whose capital is 400,000 dollars. This leads through the Schuylkill to Philadelphia. When this shall be effected, a passage will be open to Philadelphia from the Juniata, the Tyoga, and the east and west branches of the Susquehannah, which water at least 15,000,000 of acres. From this junction, the general course of the Susquehannah is about south-east until it falls into the head of the Chesapeak bay at Havre de Grace. It is above a mile wide at its mouth, and is navigable for sea vessels but about five miles, on account of its rapids. The banks of the river are very romantic, particularly where it passes through the mountains. This passage has every appearance of having been forced through by the pressure of the water, or of having been burst open by some convulsion in nature.

The several branches of the Youghiogeny river rise on the west side of the Allegany mountains. After running a short distance, they unite and form a large beautiful river, which, in passing some of the most western ridges of the mountains, precipitates itself over a level ledge of rocks, lying nearly at right angles to the course of the river. These falls, called the Ohiopyle falls, are about twenty feet in perpendicular height, and the river is perhaps eighty yards wide. For a considerable distance below the falls, the water is very rapid, and boils and foams vehemently, occasioning a continual mist to rise from it, even at noon day, and in fair weather. The river at this place runs to the south-west, but presently winds round to the north-west, and continuing this course for thirty or forty miles, it loses its name by uniting with the Monongahela, which comes from the southward, and contains, perhaps, twice as much water. These united streams, shortly after their junction, mingle with the waters of the Allegany and Pittsburgh, and together form the grand river Ohio.

The Monongahela has been already particularly described, and some observations made on the navigation of the Allegany. In addition it may be observed, that the junction of French Creek (which comes from the north-west) with the Allegany, are the remains of a British fortification; and about a mile above is Fort Franklin, built

in 1787, and then guarded by a company of American soldiers. The Pennsylvania north line crosses French Creek about three miles above Le Bœuf, where there was formerly a fort. From Le Bœuf to Presqueisle, fifteen or sixteen miles, is an old waggon road, cut by the French in the war of 1755. The lands on French Creek are very rich, and mostly cleared, which is an evidence that its former Indian inhabitants were numerous. Fourteen miles from the mouth of this creek is a gentle rapid, thence to its mouth, it is slow, deep, and smooth.

There is said to be a practicable communication between the southern branch of the Tyoga and a branch of the Allegany, the head waters of which are but a short distance from each other. The Seneca Indians say they can walk four times in a day, from the boatable waters of the Allegany to those of the Tyoga, at the place now mentioned. And between the Sutchannah, just before it crosses into Pennsylvania the first time, and the Delaware, is a portage of only twelve miles. Rafts of timber, plank, boards, and staves, with other articles upon them, can be brought down the Delaware from the counties of Montgomery and Otsego in New York, 200 miles above the city by the course of the river. Some money was expended by the government and landholders in improving the navigation up towards the source, before the revolution, and there has been a survey since made, for the purpose of proceeding in the improvement of this and the other principal rivers of Pennsylvania, and for making communications by canals in the improved part, and by roads in the unimproved part of the State. Great progress has already been made in these improvements, and the exertions for their completion are still continued. The Pennsylvanians are much inclined to such enterprizes, having found great benefit from them. On the completion of the present plans, the State will be as conveniently intersected by roads as any other of its size in the Union, which will greatly facilitate the settlement of its new lands. A slight view of the map of Pennsylvania will shew how finely this State is watered by the Delaware and its branches, the Schuylkill, the Juniata, the Susquehannah and its branches, the Ohio, the Allegany, Youghiogeny, and Monongahela. The Patomak and Lake Erie also afford prospects of considerable benefit from their navigation. Nature has done much for Pennsylvania in regard to inland water carriage, which is strikingly exemplified by this fact, that although Philadelphia and lake Erie are distant from each other above 300 miles, there is no doubt but that the rivers of the State may be so improved, as to reduce the land carriage between them nine tenths. In the same way the navigation to Pittsburg, after due improvement, may be used instead of land carriage for the whole distance, except twenty-three miles.—By these routs it is clear, that a large proportion of the foreign articles used on the western waters must be transported, and their furs, skins, ginseng, hemp, flax, pot ash, and other valuable commodities, brought to Philadelphia. The hemp and oak timber for the Russian navy is transported by inland navigation 1200 miles, and yet hemp is shipped from that kingdom on lower terms than from any other part of the known world. Russia, long since the settlement of Pennsylvania by civilized and enlightened people, was in a state of absolute barbarism, and destitute of these improvements. Much therefore is to be expected from the continued exertions of the prudent, industrious, and sensible inhabitants of Pennsylvania, in the course of the present century. One remark must not be omitted here, and that is, that in all the back country waters of this State, even in those high up in the mountains, marine petrifications are found in great abundance.

SWAMPS.] The only swamps worth noticing are, the *Great Swamp*, between Northampton and Luzerne counties, and *Buffaloe Swamp* in the State of New York, some distance

distance north of the Pennsylvania line. These swamps, on examination and survey, are found to be bodies of farm land, thickly covered with beech and sugar maple.

MOUNTAINS, FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND NATURAL ADVANTAGES.] A considerable proportion of this State may be called mountainous; particularly the counties of Bedford, Huntingdon, Cumberland, part of Franklin, Dauphin, and part of Bucks and Northampton, through which pass, under various names, the numerous ridges and spurs, which collectively form what we chuse to call, for the sake of clearness, THE GREAT RANGE OF ALLEGANY MOUNTAINS. The principal ridges in this range, in Pennsylvania, are the Kittatinny, or Blue Mountains, which pass north of Nazareth in Northampton county, and pursue a south-west course across the Lehigh, through Dauphin county, just above Harrisburg, thence on the west side of the Susquehannah through Cumberland and Franklin counties. Back of these, and nearly parallel with them, are Peters, Tuscarra, and Nescopek mountains, on the east of the Susquehannah; and on the west, Sharman's Hills, Sideling Hills, Ragged, Great Warriors, Evit's and Wills' mountains; then the great Allegany ridge, which being the largest, gives its name to the whole range; west of this are the Chestnut ridges. Between the Juniata and the west branch of the Susquehannah are Jacks, Tullys, Nittiny, and Bald Eagle mountains. The vales between these mountains are generally of a rich, black soil, suited to the various kinds of grain and grass. Some of the mountains will admit of cultivation almost to their tops. The other parts of the State are generally level, or agreeably variegated with hills and vallies.

In this connection, I beg leave to introduce the remarks of Mr. Charles Thompson, the late secretary of Congress, which were suggested on his reading Mr. Jefferson's description of the passage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge. 'The reflections I was led into on viewing this passage of the Patomak through the Blue ridge were, that this country must have suffered some violent convulsion, and that the face of it must have been changed from what it probably was some centuries ago; that the broken and ragged faces of the mountain on each side the river; the tremendous rocks, which are left with one end fixed in the precipice, and the other jutting out and seemingly ready to fall for want of support; the bed of the river for several miles below obstructed, and filled with the loose stones carried from this mound; in short, every thing on which you cast your eye evidently demonstrates a disrapture and breach in the mountain, and that, before this happened, what is now a fruitful vale, was formerly a great lake or collection of water, which possibly might have here formed a mighty cascade, or had its vent to the ocean by the Susquehannah, where the Blue ridge seems to terminate. Besides this, there are other parts of this country which bear evident traces of a like convulsion. From the best accounts I have been able to obtain, the place where the Delaware now flows through the Kittatinny mountain, which is a continuation of what is called the North Ridge, or mountain, was not its original course, but that it passed through what is now called 'the Wind-gap,' a place several miles to the westward, and above an hundred feet higher than the present bed of the river. This wind-gap is about a mile broad, and the stones in it such as seem to have been washed for ages by water running over them. Should this have been the case, there must have been a large lake behind that mountain, and by some uncommon swell in the waters, or by some convulsion of nature, the river must have opened its way through a different part of the mountain, and meeting there with less obstruction, carried away with the opposing mounds of earth, and deluged the country below with the immense collection of waters to which this new passage gave vent. There are still remaining, and daily discovered, innumerable instances of such a deluge on both sides

sides of the river, after it passed the hills above the fall of Trenton, and reached the champaign. On the New Jersey side, which is flatter than the Pennsylvania side, all the country below Croswick hills seems to have been overflowed to the distance of from ten to fifteen miles back from the river, and to have acquired a new soil by the earth and clay brought down and mixed with the native sand. The spot on which Philadelphia stands evidently appears to be made ground. The different strata through which they pass in digging to water, the acorns, leaves, and sometimes branches, which are found above twenty feet below the surface, all seem to demonstrate this. I am informed that at Yorktown in Virginia, in the bank of York river, there are different strata of shells and earth, one above another, which seem to point out that the country there has undergone several changes; that the sea has, for a succession of ages, occupied the place where dry land now appears: and that the ground has been suddenly raised at various periods. What a change would it make in the country below, should the mountains at Niagara, by any accident, be cleft asunder, and a passage suddenly opened to drain off the waters of Erie and the Upper lakes! While ruminating on these subjects, I have often been hurried away by fancy, and led to imagine, that what is now the bay of Mexico, was once a champaign country; and that from the point or cape of Florida, there was a continued range of mountains through Cuba, Hispaniola, Porto Rico, Martinique, Guadaloupe, Barbadoes, and Trinidad, till it reached the coast of America, and formed the shores which bounded the ocean, and guarded the country behind: that, by some convulsion or shock of nature, the sea had broken through these mounds, and deluged that vast plain, till it reached the foot of the Andes; that being there heaped up by the trade winds, always blowing from one quarter, it had found its way back, as it continues to do, through the gulph between Florida and Cuba, carrying with it the loom and sand it may have scooped from the country it had occupied, part of which it may have deposited on the shores of North America, and which part formed the banks of Newfoundland.—But these are only the visions of fancy.*

The soil of Pennsylvania is of various kinds; in some parts it is barren; a great proportion of the State is good land, and no inconsiderable part is very good. Perhaps the proportion of first rate land is not greater in any of the Thirteen States. The richest part of the State that is settled in Lancaster county, and the valley through Cumberland, York, and Franklin. The richest that is unsettled, is between Allegany river and Lake Erie, in the north-west corner of the State; and in the country on the heads of the eastern branches of the Allegany. Of this fine tract, 100,000 acres, lying on, and near French Creek, are for sale by the State. The convenient communications through this creek into the Allegany, and from the Allegany, through various creeks and rivers to Susquehannah and Patomak, have already been mentioned.

The south side of Pennsylvania is the best settled land throughout, owing entirely to the circumstance of the western road having been run by the armies, prior to 1762, through the towns of Lancaster, Carlisle, and Bedford, and thence to Pittsburg. For the purpose of turning the tide of settlers from this old channel into the unsettled parts of the State, the government and landed interest of Pennsylvania have been, and are still busy in cutting convenient roads. During the summer of 1788 they run a road north, from a former road beyond Bethlehem, to the north portage between Delaware and Susquehannah: and thence north eighty degrees west to the mouth of the Tyoga, the first seventy miles, and the last above sixty. It is now in contemplation

* Jefferson's History of Virginia, printed for J. Stockdale. Appendix No. II.

to cut a road from Sunbury, at the forks of the east and west branches of Susquehanna; west 150 miles to the mouth of Toby's Creek, which empties into the Alleghany river from the east. This road will be through a tract of rich land, now for sale by the State. A road is also cut from the mouth of the Tyoga, southward, to the mouth of Loyal, a branch of the west branch of Susquehanna. Another road is cut from Huntingdon town, on Franks town branch of the Juniata, westward thirty miles to Conemagh, a navigable branch of the Alleghany.

Thus the well-judged policy of this State is paving the way for the settlement of all their waste lands. And to evidence their benevolence, and their wishes to have the advantages of education increased and more extensively enjoyed, they have allotted 60,000 acres of these waste lands for the use of public schools; and above 60,000 more have been granted for that purpose, and to the societies established for the promotion of knowledge, the arts, religion, &c. A considerable part of the lands of this State remain at present for sale by the public. The Pennsylvanians having no disputes with the Indians about boundaries, and all the lands within the State, being purchased at a fair and open treaty, and there being some settlements westward of the Pennsylvania line, there is little apprehension of the Indians any where, and in most parts of the State no danger at all.

Among the natural advantages of Pennsylvania, her almost innumerable mill seats ought not to be omitted. They are conveniently distributed by Providence throughout the State, and afford the means of establishing every species of mill work and labour-saving machines, to meet the produce and raw materials almost at the farmers doors. In the present situation of this country, wanting hands for farming, and in the present state of manufactures, when ingenious mechanism is every day and every where invented to lessen the necessity for manual labour, this natural advantage must appear of inestimable importance. Hemp and flax are among the most profitable productions of the rich midland and new counties, *the Cream* of which is yet to be skimmed. It is therefore a most pleasing fact, that they have in this State the full-sized and complete movements or works of a water mill and machinery, to sliver, rove, and spin flax and hemp into threads or yarns, fit for linen of thirty cuts to the pound, or any coarser kind, sheetings, towelling, sail cloth, oznabrigs, twine, and the strans or yarns for cordage. The same machinery is calculated for the roving or preparing, and spinning of combed wool into worsted yarn. They have also the movements and complete machinery of Sir Richard Arkwright's water-mill for spinning yarns of cotton. And though the climate of the State is not fit for cultivating that raw material, yet cotton can be raised with profit in every State in the Union southward of Pennsylvania, and imported from the East and West Indies.

It is certain that this extraordinary capacity of our country for mechanical works has either called forth, in an unusual degree, the mechanical powers of the human mind, or that Providence has bestowed upon the people of this and our sister States an uncommon portion of this talent, which its nature and situation require. *Rittenbouse* and *Franklin* stand unrivalled in mechanical philosophy; and those who know our country are well informed, that to these two *great* names we could add a considerable list of philosophical and practical mechanicians, in a variety of branches.

So many of the necessary and convenient arts and trades depend upon the plenty and cheapness of fuel, that it appears proper to take notice of this article. Till the revolution, the dependence of the people was almost entirely upon wood fuel, of which, in the most populous places, there is still a great abundance, and in all interior situations immense quantities; but the increase of manufactures has occasioned them to turn

their attention to coal. Of this useful fossile Providence has given them very great quantities in the middle and western country. In the vicinity of Wyoming, on the Susquehanna, is one bed of the open burning kind, and of the most intense heat. On the head waters of Schuylkill and Lehigh are some considerable bodies. At the head of the western branch of Susquehanna is a most extensive body, which stretches over the country south-westwardly, so as to be found in the greatest plenty at Pittsburgh, where the Allegany and Youghiogeny unite, and form the head of the Ohio. All the coal has hitherto been accidentally found on the surface of the earth, or discovered in the digging of common cellars, so that when the wood fuel shall become scarce, and the European methods of boring shall be skilfully pursued, there can be no doubt of its being found in many other places. At present, the ballasting of ships from coal countries abroad, and the coal mines in Virginia, which lie convenient to ship-navigation, occasion a good deal of coal to be brought to the Philadelphia market. From this great abundance and variety of fuel it results, that Pennsylvania, and the United States in general, are well suited to all manufactories that are effected by fire, such as furnaces, foundaries, forges, glass-houses, breweries, distilleries, steel works, smith shops, and all other manufactories in metal, soap boiling, chandlers shops, pot ash works, sugar and other refineries, &c. &c.

Ship building is a business in which the port of Philadelphia exceeds most parts of the world. Masts, spars, timber, and plank, not only from their own State and the other States on the Delaware, are constantly for sale in their market; but the mulberry of the Chesapeake, and the evergreen or live oak and red cedar of the Carolinas and Georgia, are so abundantly imported, that nine-tenths of their vessels are built of them. No vessels are better than these. A live oak and cedar ship of 200 tons, carpenter's measurement, can be fitted to take in a cargo for fourteen pounds currency per ton; and there is not a port in Europe in which an oak ship can be equally well built and fitted for twenty pounds per ton currency, or twelve pounds sterling. This fact may appear doubtful or extraordinary, but it is certainly true; and it is greatly in favour of the ship carpenters and other tradesmen employed in fitting and building ships, as well as merchants and farmers, whose interests are so much connected with navigation.

The distance of Philadelphia from the sea has been made an objection by some, and the closing of the river by the ice, which happens almost every winter. Amsterdam, the greatest port in Europe, is inaccessible in the winter. But it is a fact, that, notwithstanding these objections, their vessels make as many West India voyages as those of the two other principal sea ports of the Middle States; and though the river is frozen from three to nine weeks almost every winter, yet there are occasional openings, which give opportunities for fleets of merchantmen to go out and come in. The fine corn and provision country which lies near Philadelphia, enables the merchants to load their vessels in the winter, and the market is regularly supplied with flour, pork, beef, lumber, slaves, iron, and many other of their principal articles of exportation. Little time is therefore lost, and their trade increases. The crop of 1789, and other exports from the harvest of that year to that of 1790, it was supposed, would load 120,000 tons of shipping. A very extensive back country; and many large bodies of new lands, are settling fast, which must send their produce to the Philadelphia market.

PRODUCTIONS, MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, EXPORTS, &c.] We mention these articles together, because it is difficult to separate them. Under the foregoing head, we have anticipated some things that might be naturally mentioned here. They
I
produce,

produce, manufactures, and exports of Pennsylvania are very many and various; viz. wheat, flour, middlings, ship stuff, bran, shorts, ship bread, white water biscuit, rye, rye flour, Indian corn or maize, Indian meal, buck-wheat, buck-wheat meal, bar and pig iron, steel, nail rods, nails, iron hoops, rolled iron, tire, gunpowder, cannon ball, iron cannon, musquets, ships, boats, oars, handspikes, masts, spars, ship timber, ship blocks, cordage, square timber, scantling, plank, boards, staves, heading, shingles, wooden hoops, tanners bark, corn fans, coopers wares, bricks, coarse earthen or potters ware, a very little ordinary stone ware, glue, parchment, shoes, boots, sole leather, upper leather, dressed deer and sheep skins, and gloves, and garments of the same, fine hats, many common, and a few coarse; thread, cotton, worsted and yarn hosiery, writing, wrapping, blotting, sheathing, and hanging paper, stationery, playing cards, copper, silver and gold, clocks and watches, musical instruments, snuff, manufactured tobacco, chocolate, mustard seed and mustard, starch, hair powder, flax seed, flax seed oil, flax, hemp, wool, and cotton cards, pickled beef, pork, lard, herrings, tongues and surgeon, hams and other bacon, tallow, hogs lard, butter, cheese, candles, soap, bees-wax, loaf sugar, pot and pearl ash, rum and other strong waters, beer, porter, hops, winter and summer barley, oats, spelts, onions, potatoes, turnips, cabbages, carrots, parsnips, red and white clover, timothy, and most European vegetables and grasses, apples, peaches, plums, pears, apricots, grapes, both native and imported, and other European fruits, working and pleasurable carriages, horses, black cattle, sheep, hogs, wood for cabinet-makers, lime-stone, coal, free-stone, and marble.

Some of these productions are fine, some indifferent; some of the manufactures are considerable, for a young country circumstanced as this has been, some inconsiderable; but they are enumerated to show the general nature of the State, and the various pursuits of the inhabitants. In addition to them we may mention, that a lead mine and two or three salt springs have been discovered in the new country, which will no doubt be worked, as soon as the demand for these articles to the westward increases. We ought also to notice the great forests for making pot and pearl ash. Marble is found in many parts of the State.

The manufactures of Pennsylvania have increased exceedingly within a few years, as well by master workmen and journeymen from abroad, as by the increased skill and industry of their own citizens. Household or family manufactures have greatly advanced, and valuable acquisitions have been made of implements and machinery to save labour, either imported, or invented in the United States. The hand machines for carding and spinning cotton have been introduced by foreigners, and improved upon; but they have lately obtained the water mill for spinning cotton, and a water mill for flax, which is applicable also to spinning hemp and wool. These machines promise an early establishment of the cotton, linen, and hempen branches, and must be of very great service in the woollen branch. Additional employment for weavers, dyers, bleachers, and other manufacturers, must be the consequence. Paper mills, gunpowder mills, steel works, rolling and slitting mills, printing figured goods of paper, linen and cotton, coach making, book printing, and several other branches, are wonderfully advanced, and every month seems to extend the old manufactures, or to introduce new ones. There are upwards of fifty paper mills in Pennsylvania which work materials of no intrinsic value. The manufactures from the mills are computed at 250,000 dollars. The hands employed in them do not exceed 300. It is calculated that their paper mills alone indemnify them for five eighths of their quota of the expenses of the general government, and the interest of the public debt.

The advancement of the agriculture of Pennsylvania is the best proof that can be given of the comfort and happiness it affords to its farming, manufacturing, and trading citizens. In the year 1786 their exports of flour were 150,000 barrels (exclusive of many other articles); in 1787 they were 202,000 barrels; in 1788 they were 220,000 barrels; and in 1789 they were 369,618 barrels, which exceeds any export ever made in the times of the province or in the times of the commonwealth. The produce of flax is increased in a much greater degree, and that of wool is considerably more than it was before the revolution. A new article is likely to be added to the list of their productions, which is a well-tasted and wholesome *sugar*, made of the *Maple-tree*. It has been proved by many fair and careful experiments, that it is in the power of a substantial farmer that has a family about him, easily to make twelve hundred weight of this sugar every season, without hiring any additional hands, or any utensils but those that are necessary for his family and farm use. The time in which it can be made is from the middle of February to the end of March, when farmers in this country have very little to do, as it is too early to plough or dig. The price of sugar being lower here than in Europe, this article may be reckoned at 100 Mexican dollars per annum to every careful and skilful farmer, that owns land bearing the sugar maple. Of these there are some millions of acres in Pennsylvania and the adjacent States, and at least one or two millions belonging to this State for sale. It seems also highly probable that this valuable tree may be transplanted, and thus be obtained by almost any farmer in the State, and that men of property, who will purchase kettles and hire hands for the above short period, may make large quantities.

No difficulty lies in the way of any person who desires to become a free and equal citizen. On the day of his landing he may buy a farm, a house, merchandize, or raw materials; he may open a work-shop, a counting-house, an office, or any other place of lawful business, and pursue his calling without any hindrance, or the payment of any sum of money to the public. The right of electing and being elected (which does not affect his business or his safety) is not granted till the expiration of two years, which prudence requires.

A privilege, almost peculiar to this State, has been granted to foreigners by the legislature; that of buying and holding lands and houses within this Commonwealth, without relinquishing their allegiance to the country in which they were born. They can sell or bequeath the lands, receive the rents, and, in short, have every territorial and pecuniary right that a natural-born Pennsylvanian has; but no civil rights. As they profess to owe allegiance to a foreign prince or government, and reside in a foreign country, where they of course have civil rights, they cannot claim them, nor ought they to desire them here, since no man can serve two masters. If they chuse, at any time after purchase, to come out to this country and make themselves citizens; or if they chuse to give their estate to a child, or other person, who will do so, either of them may become citizens to all intents and purposes.

Such is the present situation of things in Pennsylvania, which is more or less the same in several other of the American States, viz. District of Main, New Hampshire, Vermont, New York, Virginia, the Carolinas, and Georgia; but though not so in the rest, the principal difference is, that they are so fully peopled, that there are few new lands of any value unfold, and farming lands, that are improved, are of course dearer. In those States, however, agriculture, commerce, manufactures, the fisheries, and navigation, afford comfortable subsistence and ample rewards of profit to the industrious and well-disposed, amidst the blessings of civil and religious liberty.

POPULATION

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State is mentioned in the table. It is nearly ten for every square mile. The number of militia is estimated at upwards of 90,000, between 18 and 53 years of age.

The inhabitants are principally the descendants of the English, Irish, and Germans, with some Scotch, Welch, Swedes, and a few Dutch. There are also many of the Irish and Germans who emigrated when young or middle aged. The Friends and Episcopalians are chiefly of English extraction, and compose about one third of the inhabitants. They live principally in the city of Philadelphia, and in the counties of Chester, Philadelphia, Bucks, and Montgomery. The Irish are mostly Presbyterians, but some Catholics. Their ancestors came from the north of Ireland, which was originally settled from Scotland; hence they have sometimes been called Scotch Irish, to denote their double descent: but they are commonly and more properly called Irish, or the descendants of people from the north of Ireland. They inhabit the western and frontier counties, and are numerous.

The Germans compose about one quarter of the inhabitants of Pennsylvania. They are most numerous in the north parts of the city of Philadelphia, and the counties of Philadelphia, Montgomery, Bucks, Dauphin, Lancaster, York, and Northampton, mostly in the four last, and are spreading in other parts. They consist of Lutherans, (who are the most numerous sect) Calvinists or Reformed Church, Moravians, Catholics, Mennonists, Tunkers (corruptly called Dunkers), and Zwingfelters, who are a species of Quakers. These are all distinguished for their temperance, industry, and economy.

The Germans have usually fifteen or sixty-nine members in the Assembly; and some of them have arisen to the first honours in the State, and now fill a number of the higher offices; yet the body of them want education. A literary spirit has however of late been increasing among them.

The Baptists (except the Mennonist and Tunker Baptists, who are Germans) are chiefly the descendants of emigrants from Wales, and are not numerous. A proportionate assemblage of the national prejudices, the manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments of all these, will form the Pennsylvanian character. As the leading traits in this character, thus constituted, we may venture to mention industry, frugality, bordering in some instances on parsimony, enterprize, a taste and ability for improvements in mechanics, in manufactures, in agriculture, in public buildings and institutions, in commerce, and in the liberal sciences; temperance, plainness, and simplicity in dress and manners; pride and humility in their extremes; inoffensiveness and intrigue; and in regard to religion, variety and harmony. Such appear to be the distinguishing traits in the collective Pennsylvanian character.

RELIGION.] The situation of religion and religious rights and liberty in Pennsylvania, is a matter that deserves the attention of all sober and well-disposed people, who may have thoughts of this country. This State always afforded an asylum to the persecuted sects of Europe. No church or society ever was established here, no tithes or tenths can be demanded; and though some regulations of the Crown of England excluded two churches from a share in the government of the province, these are now done away with regard to every religious society whatever, except the Hebrew Church. But a convention of special representatives of the citizens of Pennsylvania have had under consideration all the errors that have inadvertently crept into their constitution and frame of government, and, in the act they have published for the examination of the people, they have rejected the *half-way* doctrine of TOLERATION, and have *established*, upon firm and perfectly equal ground, *all* denominations of religious men. By the provisions

visions of the new code, a Protestant, a Roman Catholic, and a Hebrew, may elect or be elected to any office in the State, and pursue any lawful calling, occupation, or profession.

LITERARY, HUMANE, AND OTHER USEFUL SOCIETIES.] These are more numerous and flourishing in Pennsylvania, than in any of the Fifteen States. The names of these improving institutions, the times when they were established, and a summary of the benevolent designs they were intended to accomplish, will be mentioned in their order.

1. THE AMERICAN PHILOSOPHICAL SOCIETY, *held at Philadelphia, for promoting useful knowledge.* This society was formed January 2d, 1769, by the union of two other literary societies that had subsisted for some time in Philadelphia, and were created one body corporate and politic, with such powers, privileges, and immunities as are necessary for answering the valuable purposes which the society had originally in view, by a charter granted by the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, on the 15th of March, 1780. This society have already published two very valuable volumes of their transactions; one in 1771, the other in 1786.

In 1771, this society consisted of nearly 300 members; and upwards of 120 have since been added; a large proportion of which are foreigners of the first distinction in Europe.

Their charter allows them to hold lands, gifts, &c. to the amount of the clear yearly value of ten thousand bushels of wheat. The number of members is not limited.

2. THE SOCIETY FOR PROMOTING POLITICAL INQUIRIES, consisting of fifty members, instituted in February, 1787.

3. THE COLLEGE OF PHYSICIANS, instituted in 1787, for the promotion of medical, anatomical, and chemical knowledge, incorporated by act of Assembly, March, 1789.

4. THE PENNSYLVANIA HOSPITAL, a humane institution, which was first meditated in 1750, and carried into effect by means of a liberal subscription of about 3000*l.* and by the assistance of the Assembly, who, in 1751, granted as much more for the purpose. The present building was begun in 1754, and finished in 1756. This hospital is under the direction of twelve managers, chosen annually, and is visited every year by a committee of the Assembly. The accounts of the managers are submitted to the inspection of the legislature. Six physicians attend *gratis*, and generally prescribe twice or three times in a week, in their turns. This hospital is the general receptacle of lunatics and madmen, and of those affected with other disorders, and are unable to support themselves. Here they are humanely treated and well provided for.

5. THE PHILADELPHIA DISPENSARY, *for the medical relief of the poor.* This benevolent institution was established on the 12th of April, 1786, and is supported by annual subscriptions of thirty-five shillings each person. No less than 1800 patients were admitted within sixteen months after the first opening of the dispensary. It is under the direction of twelve managers and six physicians, all of whom attend *gratis*. This institution exhibits an application of something like the mechanical powers to the purposes of humanity. The greatest quantity of good is produced this way with the least money. Five hundred pounds a year defrays all the expenses of the institution. The poor are taken care of in their own houses, and provide every thing for themselves, except medicines, cordial drinks, &c.

6. THE PENNSYLVANIA SOCIETY, *for promoting the abolition of Slavery, and the relief of free Negroes unlawfully held in bondage.* This society was begun in 1774, and enlarged

on the 23d of April, 1787. The officers of the society consist of a president, two vice-presidents, two secretaries, a treasurer, four counsellors, an electing committee of twelve, and an acting committee of six members; all of whom, except the last, are to be chosen annually by ballot, on the first Monday in January. The society meet quarterly, and each member contributes ten shillings annually, in quarterly payments, towards defraying its contingent expenses.

The legislature of this State have favoured the humane designs of this society, by "An Act for the gradual Abolition of Slavery," passed on the first of March, 1780; wherein, among other things, it is ordained that no person born within the State, after the passing of the act, shall be considered as a servant for life; and all perpetual slavery is by this act for ever abolished. The act provides, that those who would, in case this act had not been made, have been born servants or slaves, shall be deemed such, till they shall attain the age of twenty-eight years; but they are to be treated in all respects as servants bound by indenture for four years.

7. THE SOCIETY OF THE UNITED BRETHREN, *for propagating the gospel among the heathens*, instituted in 1787, to be held statedly at Bethlehem. An act, incorporating this society, and investing it with all necessary powers and privileges for accomplishing its pious designs, was passed by the legislature of the State, on the 27th of February, 1788. They can hold lands, houses, &c. to the annual amount of two thousand pounds.

These pious *Brethren*, commonly called Moravians, began a mission among the Mahikan, Wampano, Delaware, Shawanoe, Nantikok, and other Indians, about fifty years ago, and were so successful as to add more than one thousand souls to the Christian church by baptism. Six hundred of these have died in the Christian faith; about 300 live with the missionaries near Lake Erie, and the rest are either dead, or apostates in the wilderness.

8. THE PENNSYLVANIA SOCIETY, *for the encouragement of manufactures and useful arts*, instituted in 1787, open for the reception of every citizen in the United States, which will fulfil the engagements of a member of the same. The society is under the direction of a president, four vice-presidents, and twelve managers, besides subordinate officers. Each member, on his admission, pays ten shillings at least into the *general fund*; and the same sum annually, till he shall cease to be a member.

Besides these, a very respectable insurance company has lately been established in Philadelphia, with a capital of 600,000 dollars, who have commenced business to advantage.—There is also a SOCIETY FOR ALLEVIATING THE MISERIES OF PRISONS; and a HUMANE SOCIETY, for the recovering and restoring to life the bodies of drowned persons, instituted in 1770, under the direction of thirteen managers. And a SOCIETY *for the aid and protection of Irish emigrants*.

Also, an *Agricultural Society*; a *Society for German emigrants*; a *Marine Society*, consisting of captains of vessels; a *Charitable Society for the support of widows and families of Presbyterian clergymen*; and *St. George's, St. Andrew's, and the Hibernian Charitable Societies*. Most of these societies are in the city of Philadelphia.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, AND SCHOOLS.] From the enterprising and literary spirit of the Pennsylvanians, we should naturally conclude, what is fact, that there are numerous.

In Philadelphia is the University of Pennsylvania, founded and endowed by the legislature during the war. Professorships are established in all the liberal arts and sciences, and a complete course of education may be pursued here from the first rudiments of literature to the highest branches of science.

The college and academy of Philadelphia was founded by charter between thirty and forty years ago, and endowed by subscriptions of liberal-minded persons. Though this institution was interrupted in its progress for several years during the late war, yet being re-established since the peace, it has rapidly recovered its former state of prosperity, and to the bench of professors has lately been added one of common and federal law, which renders it in reality, though not in name, an university. An act to unite these two institutions has passed the legislature. By their union they will constitute one of the most respectable seminaries of learning in the United States.

DICKINSON COLLEGE, at Carlisle, 120 miles westward of Philadelphia, was founded in 1783, and has a principal, three professors, a philosophical apparatus, a library consisting of nearly 3000 volumes, four thousand pounds in funded certificates, and 10,000 acres of land; the last, the donation of the State. In 1787, there were eighty students belonging to this college. This number is annually increasing. It was named after his Excellency John Dickinson, author of the Pennsylvania Farmer's Letters, and formerly President of the Supreme Executive Council of this State.

In 1787, a college was founded at Lancaster, sixty-six miles from Philadelphia, and honoured with the name of FRANKLIN COLLEGE, after his Excellency Dr. Franklin. This college is for the Germans; in which they may educate their youth in their own language, and in conformity to their own habits. The English language, however, is taught in it. Its endowments are nearly the same as those of Dickinson College. Its trustees consist of Lutherans, Presbyterians, Calvinists, and English; of each an equal number. The principal is a Lutheran, and the vice-principal is a Calvinist.

The Episcopalians have an academy at York town, in York county. There are also academies at German town, at Pittsburg, at Washington, at Allen's town, and other places; these are endowed by donations from the legislature, and by liberal contributions of individuals.

The schools for young men and women in Bethlehem and Nazareth, under the direction of the people called Moravians, are upon the best establishment of any schools in America. Besides these, there are private schools, in different parts of the State; and to promote the education of poor children, the State have appropriated a large tract of land for the establishment of free schools. A great proportion of the labouring people among the Germans and Irish are, however, extremely ignorant.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The city of Philadelphia, capital of the State of Pennsylvania, and the present seat of government of the United States of America, lies in latitude $39^{\circ} 56'$ North, and longitude $75^{\circ} 8' 45''$ West from Greenwich, upon the western bank of the River Delaware, which is here but a mile in breadth, about 120 miles from the Atlantic ocean, by the course of the bay and river, about 55 or 60 miles from the sea, in a south-eastward direction.

It was laid out by William Penn, the first proprietary and founder of the province, in the year 1683, and settled by a colony from England, which arrived in that and the preceding years, and was increased, by a constant and regular influx of foreigners, to so great a degree, that in less than a century, and within the life-time of the first person born within it of European parents, it was computed to contain 6000 houses and 40,000 inhabitants in the city and suburbs.

The ground plot of the city is an oblong square, about one mile North and South, and two miles East and West, lying in the narrowest part of the isthmus between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, about five miles in a right line above their confluence. The plain is so nearly level, except upon the bank of the Delaware, that art and labour were

were necessary to dig common sewers and watercourses in many places to drain the streets. In the beginning of this settlement, it was expected, that the fronts on both rivers would be first improved for the convenience of trade and navigation, and that the buildings would extend gradually in the rear of each, until they would meet and form one town extending from east to west; but experience soon convinced the settlers that the Delaware front was alone sufficient for quays and landing places, and that the Schuylkill lay at too great a distance to form part of the town on its banks; whence it followed that the town increased northward and southward of the original plot, on the Delaware front, and now occupies a space near three miles in length, north and south, while the buildings in the middle, where they are most extended, do not reach a mile from the Delaware.

The city has been twice incorporated, and the limits thereof restrained to the oblong originally laid out by William Penn, without including the northern or southern suburbs. This plot is intersected by a number of streets at right angles with each other, nine of which run east and west from Delaware to Schuylkill, and twenty-three north and south, crossing the first at right angles, forming one hundred and eighty-four squares of lots for buildings. The streets running east and west are named (except High Street near the middle of the city) from the trees found in the country upon the arrival of the colony; Vine, Sassafras, Mulberry, High, Chestnut, Walnut, Spruce, Pine, and Cedar Streets, and those running north and south from their numeral order, Front, Second, Third, Fourth, &c. to Broad Street, which is midway between the two rivers. In deeds, and other descriptive writings, which require exactness, these streets have the Delaware or Schuylkill prefixed to their numeral names, to distinguish to which front they belong; as Delaware Second Street, &c. but as there are very few buildings westward of Broad Street, this addition is never made in common conversation, but when they are named they are understood of the Delaware front, unless Schuylkill be added.

Of these, High Street is 100 feet, Broad Street 113, Mulberry 60, and all the others 50 feet wide. Within the improved parts of the city they are paved in the middle with pebble stones, for carts and carriages, which usually contain three fifths of the whole breadth, and on each side with bricks for foot passengers; between the brick and stone pavements are gutters, paved with brick, to carry off the water, and the foot ways are defended from the approach of carriages by rows of posts placed without the gutters, at the distance of ten or twelve feet from each other.

Besides the forementioned main streets, there are many others not originally laid down in the plot, the most public of which are Water Street and Dock Street. Water Street is thirty feet wide, running below the bank, at the distance of about forty feet eastward from and parallel to Front Street, extending from the north line of the city southward to the bridge over the dock, which was formerly a draw bridge, and retains that name in common use, although it was converted into a stone arch above thirty years since; from the bridge it is forty feet wide in a right line to Pine Street, and leaves a row of houses without yards, on the bank, in its whole length, between it and Front Street; southward of Pine Street, there is an offset of about eighty feet eastward, and the street from thence to Cedar Street is forty-five feet wide, and called Penn Street. This street, in the original plan, was intended only for a cart way to accommodate the wharves and stores to be erected under the bank, and not to rise more than four feet above it, so as to leave the river open to the view from the west side of Front Street; but the inhabitants were soon convinced that the ground, on both streets, was too valuable to be kept unimproved, in any degree, merely for the sake of a prospect, and it is

closely built with lofty houses (except a very few vacancies here and there) throughout the whole front on both sides, and commodious wharves are extended into the river, at which the largest ships that use the port, can lie in safety to discharge and receive their cargoes, and are defended from the ice in winter by the piers, made of logs extending into the river, sunk with stone and filled with earth, so as to be equally firm with the main land.

Dock Street is the only crooked street in the city; beginning at the bridge in Front Street, and extending north-westward in a serpentine tract through two squares, across Second and Walnut Streets, and terminates at Third Street; another branch of it extends south-westward across Spruce Street, and terminates at Second Street. The ground occupied by this street, and by an open space between it and Spruce Street, below the bridge, was formerly a swamp, and was given by William Penn to the corporation for the use of the city; it was intended as a place to dig a basin and docks to shelter the shipping, but experience proved that ships could be defended from the ice by the piers extended into the river, and that the dock could not be kept clean but at an expense far beyond its utility, wherefore it was neglected till it became a nuisance offensive to the smell and injurious to the health of the inhabitants, and was by act of Assembly, ordered to be arched over and covered with earth, whereby the city acquired a beautiful street more than one hundred feet in breadth towards the water, and not less than ninety feet in the narrowest part.

The number of the streets, lanes, and alleys, laid out by the owners of the lots before they were built on, is too great to be enumerated here, there being scarce a square that is not intersected by one or more of them, some of them continued in a right line through several squares, and so spacious as to be easily mistaken for main streets, others only through one square.

The city was first incorporated by charter under the great seal of the province, in the year 1701; before that period it was called the town of Philadelphia. By this charter William Penn nominated the first mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common councilmen, and granted them, among other privileges and franchises, that of electing others to supply vacancies, and even to increase their own number at pleasure. The public grounds were granted to them by the name of the mayor and commonalty of the city of Philadelphia, but the commonalty had no share in the government or estate of the city, the whole body being self-elective, and not accountable to the citizens in any respect. It would be difficult to account for so extraordinary a charter from the wisdom of William Penn, did not tradition inform us that among the first settlers were a considerable number from the city of Bristol in England, whose charter, granted at an early period, before the rights of the commonalty were well understood, had been familiarized by habit, which induced them to request a similar one; a copy of the Bristol charter was accordingly procured, and with little variation adopted. It was not long, however, before the commonalty began to be dissatisfied with it and to make frequent complaints to the Assembly, of the abuses that were practised under it; many of which appear upon the minutes of the house. At an early period after the charter, the legislative powers of this corporation were very limited; they could not levy a shilling by taxes for any use whatever, and could employ the income of the city estates only for the use and embellishment of the city; wherefore we see few monuments raised to preserve the memory of that corporation. Although the first men for integrity and abilities to be found in the city were elected into the office of the body politic, yet such is the nature of unlimited power, not accountable to the people, that it will divert the best men from purposes, which, before they were invested with the power, they would have highly

highly approved. The jealousy which the citizens entertained of the corporation pervaded the General Assembly of the province, and when the lighting, watching, and paving the city became a desirable object, the representatives of the freemen would not entrust the corporation alone with the power of raising or expending the money necessary for these purposes; they could not, however, cast such a reflection on the respectable characters of which that body was composed, as wholly to vest these powers with others; they pursued a middle line, and constituted two separate bodies by the names of city wardens and street commissioners, to the former of whom the lighting and watching, and to the latter the paving of the streets, was committed; the mayor, or recorder, and four of the aldermen concurring with each body in laying the taxes and prescribing the mode of expending them; thus the city legislation for these purposes became compounded of two branches, the wardens and commissioners immediately elected by the people, in the same manner as their representatives in Assembly, constituted the democratic, and the mayor and aldermen the aristocratic branch. These bodies, thus compounded, conducted the business committed to them with great harmony, nor is there the least recollection of any disagreement between them; the taxes were laid with equality, collected with moderation, and expended for the real use and improvement of the city; one complaint only had foundation, which arose from the nature rather than from any abuse of the powers: the number of wardens and street commissioners was so great, as at very moderate wages to render those boards too expensive.

For the honour of the late corporation it ought not to be omitted, that the mayor's court was always filled with an able lawyer for the recorder, and another for the prosecution of criminal offences; and such was the orderly and upright administration of justice in it, that no court in the province, or perhaps in any other country, exceeded it.

The prejudices under which the old corporation laboured from its original constitution, were so strong, that upon the revolution, the General Assembly declared, by an act passed during their first session, "That the powers and jurisdiction hitherto exercised by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen of the city of Philadelphia, were not founded on the authority of the people, and are therefore become null and void." Wherefore, by that and several subsequent acts, the powers of the corporation were distributed between the supreme executive council, the city magistrates, and the wardens and street commissioners, who exercised them from the year 1777 to 1789. The prejudices, which had no foundation as against corporations in general, but only against the constitution of the late corporation of the city, were however so strong, that it was with difficulty the people could be prevailed upon to submit to a new incorporation of the city. The defects in the administration of justice and governing the police of the city at length became so glaring, that they were seen by all classes of people, and their minds prepared for an act of incorporation. The General Assembly, in the winter sessions of 1789, favouring the wishes of the citizens, passed an act, intitled, An Act to incorporate the city of Philadelphia, which, with a supplement passed in 1790, constitutes the present city charter. By these acts

The common council consists of two branches; fifteen aldermen are chosen by the freeholders to continue in office for seven years; they chuse a recorder from the citizens at large for seven years, and a mayor from their own number for one year. Thirty common councilmen are chosen by the citizens at large, entitled to vote for representatives in Assembly, to continue in office for three years; these were intended to form a balanced government, upon the principle that the choice by freeholders, and

for a longer term, would produce a more select body of aldermen, and that the citizens at large would chuse characters fitter to represent and form the popular branch of city government. Eight aldermen and sixteen common councilmen form a quorum or board to transact business, at which the mayor or recorder presides; they sit and deliberate together, but no act is legal, unless a majority of the aldermen, a majority of the common councilmen present, and the mayor or recorder, concur.

There is not perhaps in the world a more liberal plan of city government; every class of citizens have an opportunity of representing and being represented. The body is sufficiently numerous to contain some of every description, and of every species of talents and information necessary for deliberation and execution, and yet not so large as to be encumbered with its own weight; it possesses the powers of legislation and taxation in all cases necessary for the well-governing and improving the city, except in contradiction to acts of the General Assembly; and from the many improvements already introduced, there is reason to hope that its police will be equal to that of any modern city.

A city court is held by the mayor, recorder, and aldermen four times a year, and holds cognizance of all crimes and misdemeanors committed within the city.

A court of alderman, having cognizance of debts above forty shillings, and not exceeding ten pounds, is held every week, beginning on Monday morning, and setting by adjournments until the business of the week is finished.

Each alderman has separate cognizance of debts under forty shillings.

The number of inhabitants within the city and suburbs (including the district of Southwark and the compactly built part of the Northern Liberties, which, to every purpose but as to their government, are considered as parts of the city) is found by the late census to be 42,520, and the number of houses 6,651, and stores or workshops 415.

The houses for public worship are numerous, and are as follows:

The Friends or Quakers, have	5*	The Swedish Lutherans,	1†
The Presbyterians, and Seceders,	6	The Moravians,	1
The Episcopalians,	3	The Baptists,	1
The German Lutherans,	2	The Universal Baptists,	1
The German Calvinists,	1	The Methodists,	1
The Catholics,	4	The Jews.	1

The other public buildings in the city, besides the university and college already mentioned, are the following, viz.

A state house and offices,	Two incorporated banks,
Two city court houses,	A house of correction,
A county court house,	A dramatic theatre,
A carpenters hall,	A public observatory,
A philosophical society's hall,	A medical theatre and elaboratory,
A dispensary,	Three brick market houses,
A hospital, and offices,	A fish market,
An alms house,	A public gaol.

The state house is in Chestnut Street, between Fifth and Sixth Streets, and was erected as early as 1735. The building is rather magnificent than elegant, but when it is

* One of these houses is for those Quakers who took up arms in defence of their country, in the late war, contrary to the established principles of the Friends. They call themselves *Free Quakers*.

† This is the oldest church in or near the city, and has lately been annexed to the Episcopal order.

remembered that it was built within fifty-three years after the first European cabin was erected in Pennsylvania, its architecture is justly admired. The state house yard is a neat, elegant, and spacious public walk, ornamented with rows of trees; but a high brick wall, which encloses it, limits the prospect.

In 1787, an elegant court house was erected on the left of the state house; and on the right, the town hall or new court house, and a philosophical hall. These add much to the beauty of the square.

South of the state house is the public gaol, built of stone. It has a ground half story, and two stories above it. Every apartment is arched with stone against fire and force. It is a hollow square; one hundred feet in front, and is the neatest and most secure building of the kind in America. To the gaol is annexed a work house, with yards to each, to separate the sexes, and criminals from debtors. There have lately been added apartments in the yards for solitary confinement of criminals according to the new penal code. Of 4060 debtors, and 4000 criminals, in the whole 8060 who were confined in this new gaol, between the 28th of September, 1780, and the 5th of September 1790, twelve only died a natural death in the gaol.

The hospital and poor house, in which are upwards of 300 poor people, whether we consider the buildings, or the designs for which they were erected, are unrivalled in America.

The German church, lately erected, is one of the most elegant churches in America. Mr. D. Taneberger, one of the united brethren's society at Litiz; a great mechanical genius, has completed and erected a large organ for this church.

The market house in High Street is acknowledged by Europeans to exceed any thing they have seen of the kind, in extent, neatness, variety and abundance of provisions. That at Callow-hill, at the north end of the city, and that at the north end, do honour to the citizens and their police.

The city is provided with a number of public and private charitable institutions; the principal of which are, the house of employment, a large commodious building, where the poor of the city and some adjoining townships are supported and employed in coarse manufactures to aid in defraying their expenses, under the care of the overseers and guardians of the poor, who are a corporate body created for this purpose by act of Assembly, with power to lay taxes for its further support.

The Pennsylvania hospital, already mentioned.

The Quaker's alms house is supported by that society for the use of their own poor; it is divided into a number of separate houses and rooms for families or single persons who have fallen into decay; most of them contribute by their industry towards their own support; but are supplied with whatever their industry falls short of procuring, by a committee of the society, and live more comfortably than many who in full health and unhurt by accident, provide for their own subsistence; there is a considerable garden belonging to this house, from which the city is supplied, at very moderate prices, with every kind of medicinal herbs common to the climate.

A house founded by the late Dr. John Kearsley the elder, for the support of twelve elderly widows of the Protestant Episcopal communion, in which a number of persons of that description, who have seen better days, are very comfortably and decently provided for.

The humane society for recovering persons supposed to be dead by drowning, established upon similar principles with those of the same name in most sea ports in Europe; it is under the care of twelve managers, annually chosen by the subscribers; the physicians

ficians afford their aid to this institution gratis, a number of these being appointed for the purpose by the managers.

Almost every religious society has a fund under proper direction, some of which are incorporated for the relief of the widows and children of their clergy or other distressed members of their communion.

There are also societies formed for the relief of particular descriptions of persons, with funds raised by subscriptions or otherwise, for the purpose, such as the sea captains society, the Delaware pilots society, separate societies for the relief and assistance of emigrants and other distressed persons, from England, Scotland, Ireland, Germany, &c. some of which are incorporated, so that there can scarce happen an instance of individual distress, for which a mode of advice, assistance, or relief is not provided without resort to public begging.

Seminaries of learning are established upon the most enlarged and liberal principles, of which the principal are, the university of Pennsylvania and college of Philadelphia, already noticed.

Almost every religious society have one or more schools under their immediate direction, for the education of their own youth of both sexes, as well of the rich, who are able to pay, as of the poor, who are taught and provided with books and stationary gratis; besides which, there are a number of private schools under the direction of masters and mistresses, independent of any public body; and there are several private academies for the instruction of young ladies in all the branches of polite literature, suitable to the sex, and there is no individual, whose parents or guardians, masters or mistresses, will take the trouble to apply, but will be admitted into some one of these schools, and if they are unable to pay, will be taught gratis; it ought not to be omitted, that there is a school for the Africans of every shade or colour, kept under the care and at the expense of the Quakers, into which are admitted gratis, slaves as well as free persons of whatever age, of both sexes, and taught reading, writing, arithmetic, knitting, sewing, and other useful female accomplishments: this school was originally instituted by private subscriptions of the society, with a view to prepare that degraded race for a better situation in civil life; but the will of the late Antony Benezet, of benevolent memory, a considerable donation from the society in England, and some other charitable devises, have provided funds adequate to its future support, and it will no longer be burthensome to individuals.

Sunday schools, for the instruction of children who would otherwise spend that day in idleness or mischief, have lately been instituted, and it is to be hoped will tend to amend the morals and conduct of the rising generation.

The public library of Philadelphia is a most useful institution; it contains near ten thousand volumes, well selected, for the information and improvement of all ranks of the citizens; they are deposited in an elegant building lately erected, in a modern style, are accessible every day in the week, except Sunday. Here the man of learning may consult the work of the remotest ages, and trace histories, arts, and sciences from their infancy to this present state of improvement, and the mechanic, the labourer, the student or apprentice may be supplied with books to improve their minds or amuse them in their vacant hours at home. The company consists of some hundreds of proprietors, incorporated by charter, who pay ten shillings annually for the purchase of new books, and defraying incidental expenses; twelve directors are annually chosen, who manage the concerns of the company and keep a correspondence with Europe, from whence they are regularly supplied with new publications of reputation and merit.

The

The corporation have lately ordered the streets, lanes, and alleys to be marked at every intersection of each other, and the houses to be numbered. The names painted on boards, with an index hand pointing to the progression of the numbers, are already affixed at the corners of the streets, so that with the aid of the directory, a stranger may find without difficulty, any house whose street and number is known.

The city, within a few years past, has experienced a very remarkable revolution in respect to the healthiness of its inhabitants; the bill of mortality proves that the number of deaths has considerably decreased since the year 1783, notwithstanding the great increase of its population; this change in favour of health and life is ascribed by physicians to the co-operation of the following causes: 1st, The arching the dock, whereby a very noxious and offensive nuisance was removed. 2d, The cultivation of the lots adjoining and partly surrounding the city, whereby another extensive source of putrid exhalations is dried up. 3d, An increased care in cleansing the streets. 4th, An increase of horticulture, and consequently greater consumption of vegetable aliments. 5th, The institution of the dispensary, which has extended medical aid to many hundreds in a year, who either perished for the want of it, or were sacrificed by quacks. 6th, The more improved state of physic, whence several diseases formerly fatal in most instances are better understood and treated, and therefore more generally cured. And 7th, From a general diffusion of knowledge among all classes of people, from their libraries, their numerous societies, monthly, weekly, and daily publications, whence the people at large are better acquainted than formerly with the means of preserving their health, as may be exemplified in one instance; there was but one death in the summer of 1792 from drinking cold water, whereas some years ago twenty has not been an uncommon number from this single cause.*

No city can boast of so many useful improvements in manufactures, in the mechanical arts, in the art of healing, and particularly in the science of humanity, as Philadelphia. The tradesmen and manufacturers have become so numerous, that they are beginning to associate for mutual improvement, and to promote regularity and uniformity in their several occupations. The carpenters, the cordwainers, the tailors, the watch-makers, the joiners, and hair-dressers, have already associated, and others are forming into companies upon the same plan.

The Philadelphians have exerted their endeavours with happy and growing success, to prevent the intemperate use of spirituous liquors.† In accomplishing this benevolent purpose, on which so much of the prosperity and glory of our empire depend, every good citizen in the Union ought cheerfully to lend his aid and influence. As one important step towards effecting their design, they are encouraging breweries, which are fast increasing. There are fourteen already in the city, and seven or eight in the country. The increase of the consumption of beer, in the course of a few years past, in every part of America, and particularly in Pennsylvania, has been astonishing. It has become a fashionable drink, and it is not improbable, but that in a few years it will come into universal use among all classes of people. In proportion as the use of beer increases, in the same proportion will the use of spirituous liquors decrease. This

* In July, 1793, a most malignant fever broke out in Philadelphia, which raged with such uncommon fury, that there were buried of this disease from the 1st of August, to the 9th of November, four thousand and thirty-seven persons, as was collected from the several books kept by the clergymen and sextons. The first symptoms of this melancholy disorder were discovered on the 26th of July, but of the cause, the opinions of the faculty are various.

† It is much to be wished that our Londoners would follow their laudable example.

will be a happy change. The Philadelphia porter, which is exported to various parts, is reckoned equal to that which is manufactured in London.

In short, whether we consider the local situation, the size, the beauty, the variety and utility of the improvements in mechanics, in agriculture, and manufactures, or the industry, the enterprize, the humanity, and the abilities of the inhabitants of the city of Philadelphia, it merits to be viewed as the capital of the flourishing EMPIRE OF UNITED AMERICA.

The borough of LANCASTER is the largest inland town in the United States. It is the seat of justice in Lancaster county, and stands on Conecoga Creek, sixty-six miles, a little to the north of the west from Philadelphia. Its trade is already large; and must increase in proportion as the surrounding country populates. It contains about seven or eight hundred houses, besides a most elegant court house, a number of handsome churches, and other public buildings, and about five thousand souls, a great proportion of whom are manufacturers.

CARLISLE is the seat of justice in Cumberland county, and is one hundred and twenty miles westward of Philadelphia. It contains upwards of 1500 inhabitants, who live in more than three hundred stone houses, and worship in three churches. They have also a court house and a college. Thirty-eight years ago, this spot was a wilderness, and inhabited by Indians and wild beasts. A like instance of the rapid progress of the arts of civilized life is scarcely to be found in history.

PITTSBURGH, on the western side of the Allegany mountains, 320 miles westward of Philadelphia, is beautifully situated on a large plain, which is the point of land between the Allegany and Monongahela river, and about a quarter of a mile above their confluence, in latitude $40^{\circ} 26'$ north. It contains about two hundred houses, stores, and shops, and eight or nine hundred inhabitants, who are chiefly Presbyterians and Episcopalians. The surrounding country is very hilly, but good land, and well stored with excellent coal. The rivers abound with fine fish, such as pike, perch, and cat fish, which are all much larger than the same species on the eastern side of the mountains.

This town is laid out on Penn's plan, and is a thoroughfare for the travellers from the Eastern and Middle States, to the settlements on the Ohio.

SUNBURY, the shire town of Northumberland county, is situated on the east side of Susquehanna river, just below the junction of the east and west branches, in about latitude $40^{\circ} 53'$, and about 120 miles north-west from Philadelphia, and contains about 100 houses.

BETHLEHEM is situated on the river Lehigh, a western branch of the Delaware, fifty-three miles north of Philadelphia, in latitude $40^{\circ} 37'$. The town being built partly on high rising ground, and partly on the lower banks of the Manakes, (a fine creek, which affords trout and other fish) has a very pleasant and healthy situation, and is frequently visited in the summer season by gentry from different parts. The prospect is not extensive, being bounded very near by a chain of the Lehigh hills. To the northward is a tract of land called the *dry lands*.

In the year 1787, the number of inhabitants amounted to between 500 and 600, and the houses were about sixty in number, mostly good strong buildings of lime-stone. The town has since considerably increased.

Besides the church or public meeting-hall, there are three large spacious buildings, viz.

1. The

1. The single brethren's or young men's house, facing the main street or public road. Here the greatest part of the single tradesmen, journeymen, and apprentices of the town are boarded at a moderate rate, under the inspection of an elder and warden, and have, besides the public meetings, their house for devotions, morning and evening prayers. Different trades are carried on in the house for the benefit of the same.

2. The single sister's, or young women's house, where they live under the care of female inspectors. Such as are not employed in private families, earn their bread mostly by spinning, sewing, fine needle-work, knitting, and other female occupations.

Though this house has its particular regulations to preserve order and decorum, and may perhaps bear some resemblance to a nunnery, (being sometimes improperly so called) yet the plan is very different. The ladies are at liberty to go about their business in the town, or to take a walk for recreation; and some are employed in private families, or live with their parents; neither are they bound to remain in the single state, for every year some of them enter into the married state.

As to their almost uniform dress, the women in general, for the sake of avoiding extravagance, and the follies of fashion, have hitherto kept to a particular simple dress, introduced among them in Germany many years ago.

3. The house for the widow women; where such as have not a house of their own, or means to have their own house furnished, live nearly in the same way as do the single sisters. Such as are poor, infirm, and superannuated, are assisted or maintained by the congregation, as is the case with other members of the same that are not able to obtain subsistence for themselves.

There is, besides, an institution of a society of married men, begun since the year 1770, for the support of their widows. A considerable fund or principal has been raised by them, the interest of which, as well as the yearly contributions of the members, is regularly divided among the widows, whose husbands have been members of the institution.

In the house adjoining the church is the school for girls; and since the year 1787, a boarding school for young ladies from different parts, who are instructed in reading and writing, (both English and German) grammar, arithmetic, history, geography, needle-work, music, &c.

The minister of the place has the special care and inspection of this as well as of the boys school, which is kept in a separate house, fitted to that purpose, and are taught reading and writing in both languages, the rudiments of the Latin tongue, arithmetic, &c. These schools, especially that for the young ladies, are deservedly in very high repute, and scholars more than can be accommodated, are offered from all parts of the United States.

Besides the different houses for private tradesmen, mechanics, and others, there is a public tavern at the north end of the town, with good accommodations; also a store, with a general assortment of goods; an apothecary's shop; a large farm yard; and on the lower part, on Manakes Creek, is a large tanyard, a currier's and dyer's shop, a grist mill, fulling mill, oil mill, and saw mill; and on the banks of the Lehigh, a brewery.

The town is supplied with good water from a spring, which being in the lower part of the town, is raised up the hill by a machine of a very simple construction, to the height of upwards of one hundred feet, into a reservoir, whence it is conducted by pipes into the several streets and public buildings of the town.

The ferry across the river is of such particular contrivance; that a flat, large enough to carry a team of six horses, runs on a strong rope fixed and stretched across; and, by the mere force of the stream, without any other assistance, crosses the river backwards and forwards; the flat always being put in an oblique direction, with its foremost end verging towards the line described by the rope.

The greater part of the inhabitants, as well as the people in the neighbourhood, being of German extraction, this language is more in use than the English. The latter, however, is taught in the schools, and divine service performed in both languages.

NAZARETH is ten miles north from Bethlehem, and sixty-three north from Philadelphia: it is a tract of good land; containing about 5000 acres, purchased originally by the Rev. Mr. George Whitfield in 1740, and sold two years after to the brethren. The town was laid out almost in the center of this tract in 1772. Two streets cross each other at right angles, and form a square, in the middle, of 340 by 200 feet. The largest building is a stone house, erected in 1755, named Nazareth Hall, ninety-eight by forty six long, and fifty-four in height. In the lowermost story is a spacious meeting-hall, or church; the upper part of the house is chiefly fitted for a boarding-school, where youth, from different parts, are under the care and inspection of the minister of the place and several tutors, and are instructed in the English, German, Latin, and French languages; in history, geography, book-keeping, mathematics, music, drawing, and other sciences. The front of the house faces a large square open to the south, adjoining a fine piece of meadow ground, and commands a most beautiful and extensive prospect. Another elegant building on the east side of Nazareth Hall is inhabited by single sisters, who have the same regulations and way of living as those in Bethlehem. Besides their principal manufactory for spinning and twisting cotton, they have lately begun to draw wax tapers.

At the south-west corner of the aforesaid square, in the middle of the town, is the single brethren's house, and on the east-south-east corner a store. On the southernmost end of the street is a good tavern. The houses are, a few excepted, built of lime-stone, one or two stories high, inhabited by tradesmen and mechanics mostly of German extraction. The inhabitants are supplied with water conveyed to them by pipes from a fine spring near the town. The place is noted for having an exceedingly pleasant situation, and enjoying a pure and salubrious air. The number of inhabitants in the town and farms belonging to it, (Schœneck included) constituting one congregation, and meeting for divine service on Sundays and holidays at Nazareth Hall, was, in the year 1788, about 450.

LITIZ is in Lancaster county and Warwick township, eight miles from Lancaster, and seventy miles west from Philadelphia. This settlement was begun in the year 1757. There are now, besides an elegant church, and the houses of the single brethren and single sisters, which form a large square, a number of houses for private families, with a store and tavern, all in one street. There is also a good farm and several mill works belonging to the place. The number of inhabitants, including those that belong to Litiz congregation, living on their farms in the neighbourhood, amounted, in 1787, to upwards of 300.

The three last-mentioned towns are settled chiefly by Moravians, or the United Brethren.

HARRISBURGH, as it is commonly called, but legally styled Louisburgh, is the principal town in Dauphin county, is a very flourishing place, about 100 miles west by north

north from Philadelphia. It contained, in 1789, 130 dwelling houses, a stone gaol, and a German church. At that period it had been settled but about three years.

Washington, 300 miles west of Philadelphia, and beyond the Ohio, has been settled since the war, and is remarkable for the *variety* of its manufactures for so young and interior a town; it has thirty-two manufactures of twenty-two different kinds.

CURIOUS SPRINGS.] In the neighbourhood of Reading is a spring about fourteen feet deep and about 100 feet square; a full mill stream issues from it; the waters are clear and full of fishes. From appearances, it is probable that this spring is the outlet of a very considerable river, which a mile and an half or two miles above this place, sinks into the earth, and is conveyed to this outlet in a subterraneous channel.

In the northern parts of Pennsylvania there is a creek called Oil Creek, which empties into the Alleghany river; it issues from a spring, on the top of which floats an oil, similar to that called Barbadoes tar, and from which one man may gather several gallons in a day. The troops sent to guard the western posts halted at this spring, collected some of the oil, and bathed their joints with it. This gave them great relief from the rheumatic complaints with which they were affected: the waters, of which the troops drank freely, operated as a gentle cathartic.

REMARKABLE CAVES.] There are three remarkable grottos, or caves, in this State; one near Carlisle, in Cumberland county; one in the township of Durham, in Bucks county, and the other at Swetara, in Lancaster county; the latter is on the east bank of Swetara river, about two miles above its confluence with the Susquehannah. Its aperture is under a pretty high bank, and from fifteen to twenty feet wide, and from seven to ten in height. You enter, by a gradual descent, so low, as that the surface of the river is rather higher than the bottom of the cave, and in your progress pass through a number of passages and apartments of various dimensions, some low and narrow, others very high and spacious, vaulted by magnificent canopies, fretted with a variety of depending petrifications, some of which are drawn to a great length by means of the constant exudation and accretion of petrifying matter, till solid pillars have been gradually formed. These appear as supports to the roof, which is of solid lime stone, perhaps twenty feet thick. Thirty years ago there were ten such pillars, each six inches in diameter, and six feet high, all so ranged, that the place they enclosed resembled a sanctuary in a Roman church: no royal throne ever exhibited more grandeur than this *lufus naturæ*. The resemblances of several monuments are found indented in the walls on the sides of the cave, which appear like the tombs of departed heroes. Suspended from the roof is 'the bell,' (which is nothing more than a stone projected in an unusual form) so called from the sound it occasions when struck, which is similar to that of a bell.

Some of the stalactites are of a colour like sugar-candy, and others resemble loaf-sugar; but their beauty is much defaced by the smoke of the torches which are frequently employed in conducting the curious traveller through this gloomy recess. The water, which is exudated through the roof, runs down the declivity, and is both pleasant and wholesome to drink. There are several holes in the bottom of the cave descending perpendicularly, perhaps into an abyss below, which renders it dangerous to walk without a light. At the end of the cave is a pretty brook, which, after a short course, loses itself among the rocks. Beyond this brook is an outlet from the cave by a very narrow aperture. Through this the vapours continually pass outwards with a strong current of air and ascend, resembling at night the smoke of a furnace. Part of these vapours and fogs appear, on ascending, to be condensed at the head of this great alembic, and the more volatile parts to be carried off through

the aperture communicating with the exterior air before-mentioned, by the force of the air in its passage.

ANTIQUITIES.] On a high hill, near the Tyoga river; a little to the southward of the line which divides New York from Pennsylvania, are to be seen the remains of an ancient fortification. The form of it is circular, and it is encompassed with an entrenchment. The entrenchment only remains. The Indians are entirely ignorant of the origin of these works. The hill is an excellent situation for a fort, and commands a delightful view of the country around it, which is low and fertile. There is a fortification of a similar kind at Unadilla, in the flat lands, and they are numerous in the western counties.

CONSTITUTION.] The supreme executive power of the commonwealth is vested in a Governor; the legislative, in a General Assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives. The governor is chosen for three years, but cannot hold his office more than nine years in twelve. A plurality of votes makes a choice. The representatives are elected for one year; the senators for four. The latter are divided into four classes. The time of one class expires each year, whose seats are then filled by new elections. Each county chooses its representatives separately. The senators are chosen in districts formed by the legislature. There is to be an enumeration of the inhabitants once in seven years. The number of senators and representatives is, after each enumeration, to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties and districts, according to the number of taxable inhabitants. There can be never fewer than sixty, nor more than 100 representatives. The number of senators cannot be less than one fourth, nor greater than one third of the representatives. The elections are made on the second Tuesday of October. The General Assembly meets on the first Tuesday of December in each year, unless sooner convened by the governor. A majority of each house makes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualifications of its members, and establishes the rules of its proceedings. Impeachments are made by the house of representatives, and tried by the senate. All bills for raising revenue originate in the lower house, but the senate may propose amendments. The senators and representatives are free from arrests while attending the public business, except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and are not liable to be questioned concerning any thing said in public debate. They are compensated out of the public treasury, from which no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law. The journals of both houses are published weekly, and their doors kept open, unless their business requires secrecy. All bills which have passed both houses must be presented to the governor; if he approve he must sign them, but if he does not approve, he must return them within ten days, with his objections, to the house in which they originated: no bill, so returned, shall become a law, unless it be repassed by two-thirds of both houses. The governor is commander in chief of the military force, may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers; may, on extraordinary occasions, convene the General Assembly, and adjourn it, for any term not exceeding four months, in case the two branches cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the General Assembly of the state of the commonwealth; recommend such measures as he shall judge expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. In case of vacancy in the office of governor, the speaker of the senate exercises that office.—The judicial power is vested in a supreme and inferior court, the judges

judges of which; and justices of the peace, are appointed by the governor, and commissioned during good behaviour; but are removable on the address of both houses. The other officers of the State are appointed, some by the Governor, some by the General Assembly, and some by the people. The qualifications for an elector are twenty-one years of age; two years residence, and payment of taxes. They are privileged from arrests in civil actions while attending elections. Those for a representative are, twenty-one years of age and three years inhabitancy. For a senator, twenty-five years of age and four years inhabitancy. For a governor, thirty years of age and seven years inhabitancy. The governor can hold no other office. The senators and representatives none, but of attorney at law and in the militia. No person holding an office of trust, or profit, under the United States, can hold any office in this State; to which a salary is by law annexed. All the officers of the State are liable to impeachment, and are bound by oath, or affirmation, to support the constitution, and perform the duties of their offices.

The declaration of rights asserts the natural freedom and equality of all; liberty of conscience; freedom of elections and of the press; subordination of the military to the civil powers; trial by jury; security from unreasonable searches and seizures; a right to an equal distribution of justice; to be heard in criminal prosecutions; to petition for the redress of grievances; to bear arms; and to emigrate from the State. It declares, that all power is inherent in the people, and that they may, at any time, alter their form of government; that no person shall be obliged to maintain religious worship, or support any ministry; that all persons believing in the being of a God, and a future state of rewards and punishments, are eligible to office; that laws cannot be suspended but by the legislature; that all persons shall be bailable, unless for capital offences, when the proof is evident, or presumption strong; that every debtor shall be released from prison on delivering his estate to his creditors, according to law, except there be strong presumption of fraud; that the privileges of the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be suspended but in time of rebellion, or public danger; that no *ex post facto* law shall be made; that no person shall be attainted by the legislature, or forfeit his estate for longer term than his own life; that no title of nobility, or hereditary distinction, shall ever be granted.

The foregoing constitution was ratified in 1790.

Among other useful laws of this State, of a public nature, are, one that declares all rivers and creeks to be highways; a law for the emancipation of negroes, already mentioned; a bankrupt law, nearly on the model of the bankrupt laws of England; a law commuting hard labour for a long term of years, for death, as a punishment for many crimes which are made capital by the laws of England. Murder, arson, and one or two other crimes, are yet punished with death.

NEW INVENTIONS.] These have been numerous and useful. Among others are the following: A new model of the planetary worlds, by Mr. Rittenhouse, commonly, but improperly, called an orrery; a quadrant, by Mr. Godfrey, called by the plagiary name of Hadley's quadrant; a steam boat, so constructed, as that by the assistance of steam, operating on certain machinery within the boat, it moves with considerable rapidity against the stream without the aid of hands. Messrs. Fitch and Rumsey contend with each other for the honour of this invention. Besides these, there have been invented many manufacturing machines for carding, spinning, winnowing, &c. which perform an immense deal of work with very little manual assistance.

[History.] Pennsylvania was granted by King Charles II. to Mr. William Penn, son of the famous Admiral Penn, in consideration of his father's services to the crown.* Mr. Penn's petition for the grant was presented to the king in 1680; and after considerable delays, occasioned by Lord Baltimore's agent, who apprehended it might interfere with the Maryland patent, the charter of Pennsylvania received the royal signature on the 4th of March, 1681. To secure his title against all claims and prevent future altercation, Mr. Penn procured a quit claim deed from the duke of York, of all the lands covered by his own patent, to which the duke could have the least pretensions. This deed bears date August 21, 1682. On the 24th of the same month he obtained from the duke, by deed of feoffment, Newcastle, with twelve miles of the adjacent territory, and the lands south to the Hoarkills. In December following, Mr. Penn effected a union of the lower counties with the province of Pennsylvania.†

The first frame of government for Pennsylvania is dated in 1682. By this form, all legislative powers were vested in the governor and freemen of the province, in the provincial council, and a general assembly. The council was to consist of seventy-two members, chosen by the freemen; of which the governor, or his deputy, was perpetual president, with a treble vote. One third of this council went out of office every year, and their seats were supplied by new elections.

The General Assembly was at first to consist of all the freemen, afterwards of 200, and never to exceed 500.

In 1683 Mr. Penn offered another frame of government, in which the number of representatives was reduced, and the governor vested with a *negative* upon all bills passed in Assembly. By several specious arguments the people were persuaded to accept this frame of government.

Not long after, a dispute between Mr. Penn and Lord Baltimore required the former to go to England, and he committed the administration of government to five commissioners taken from the council. In 1686 Mr. Penn required the commissioners to dissolve the frame of government; but not being able to effect his purpose, he, in 1688, appointed Capt. John Blackwell his deputy. From this period the proprietors usually resided in England, and administered the government by deputies, who were devoted to their interest. Jealousies arose between the people and their governors, which never ceased till the late revolution. The primary cause of these jealousies was an attempt of the proprietary to extend his own power, and abridge that of the Assembly; and the consequence was, incessant disputes and dissensions in the legislature.

In 1689, Governor Blackwell, finding himself opposed in his views, had recourse to artifice, and prevailed on certain members of the council to withdraw themselves from the house; thus defeating the measures of the legislature.‡ The house voted this to be treachery, and addressed the governor on the occasion.

In 1693, the king and queen assumed the government into their own hands. Col. Fletcher was appointed governor of New York and Pennsylvania by one and the

* A large debt was due from the crown to Mr. Penn, a part of which he offered to remit, on condition, he obtained his grant. This, whatever benevolent motives are held out to the world, must have been a principal consideration with the king in making the grant.

† See Dr. Franklin's Historical Review of the Constitution and Government of Pennsylvania, p. 16.

‡ Two instances of a secession of members from the Assembly, with similar views, have taken place since the revolution, and seem to have been copied from the example in 1689.

same commission, with equal powers in both provinces. By this commission, the number of counsellors in Pennsylvania was reduced.

Under the administration of Governor Markham in 1696, a new form of government was established in Pennsylvania. The election of the council and assembly now became annual, and the legislature, with their powers and forms of proceeding, was new-modelled.

In 1699, the proprietary arrived from England, and assumed the reins of government. While he remained in Pennsylvania, the last *charter of privileges* or frame of government, which continued till the revolution, was agreed upon and established. This was completed and delivered to the people by the proprietary, October 28, 1701, just on his embarking for England. The inhabitants of the *Territory*, as it was then called, or the lower counties, refused to accept this charter, and thus separated themselves from the province of Pennsylvania. They afterwards had their own assembly, in which the governor of Pennsylvania used to preside.

In September 1700, the Susquehannah Indians granted to Mr. Penn all their lands on both sides the river. The Susquehannah, Shawanese, and Patomak Indians, however, entered into articles of agreement with Mr. Penn, by which, on certain conditions of peaceable and friendly behaviour, they were permitted to settle about the head of Patomak, in the province of Pennsylvania. The Conostoga chiefs also in 1701 ratified the grant of the Susquehannah Indians made the preceding year.

In 1708, Mr. Penn obtained from the Sachems of the country, a confirmation of the grants made by former Indians, of all the lands from Duck Creek to the mountains, and from the Delaware to the Susquehannah. In this deed, the Sachems declared that "they had seen and heard read divers prior deeds, which had been given to Mr. Penn by former chiefs."

While Mr. Penn was in America, he erected Philadelphia into a corporation. The charter was dated October 25, 1701, by which the police of the city was vested in a mayor, recorder, aldermen, and common-council; with power to inquire into treasons, murders, and other felonies; and to inquire into and punish smaller crimes. The corporation had also extensive civil jurisdiction; but it was dissolved at the late revolution, and Philadelphia was governed like other counties in the State, till 1789, when it was again incorporated.

By the favourable terms which Mr. Penn offered to settlers, and an unlimited toleration of all religious denominations, the population of the province was extremely rapid. Notwithstanding the attempts of the proprietary or his governors to extend his own power, and accumulate property by procuring grants from the people, and exempting his lands from taxation, the government was generally mild, and the burdens of the people by no means oppressive. The selfish designs of the proprietaries were vigorously and constantly opposed by the Assembly, whose firmness preserved the charter rights of the province.

At the revolution, the government was abolished. The proprietaries were absent, and the people, by their representatives, formed a new constitution on republican principles. The proprietaries were excluded from all share in the government, and the legislature offered them 130,000*l.* in lieu of all quit-rents, which was finally accepted. The proprietaries, however, still possess in Pennsylvania many large tracts of excellent land.

It is to be regretted, that among all the able writers in this important State, none has yet gratified the public with its interesting history. As this is not professedly the
province

province of a geographer, a more particular detail of historical facts, than has already been given, will not be expected. We shall therefore conclude with the following list of governors.

A List of the several PROPRIETORS, GOVERNORS, LIEUTENANT-GOVERNORS, and PRESIDENTS of the PROVINCE, with the Times of their respective Administration.

PROPRIETORS.

The Honourable William Penn, born 1644, died 1718.

{ Thomas Penn, and
 { Richard Penn, died 1771.
 { John Penn, sen. and
 { John Penn, jun.

GOVERNORS, &c.

Lieutenant-Governor,	William Penn, Proprietor,	from Oct. 1682, to Aug. 1684
President,	Thomas Lloyd,	Aug. 1684, to Dec. 1688
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	John Blackwell,	Dec. 1688, to Feb. 1689-90
President and Council	governed,	Feb. 1689-90, to April 26, 1693
Deputy Governor,	Benjamin Fletcher,	26 April 1693, to 3 June 1693
Lieutenant-Governor,	William Markham,	3 June 1693, to Dec. 1699
Lieutenant-Governor,	William Penn, Proprietor,	3 Dec. 1699, to 1 Nov. 1701
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	Andrew Hamilton,	1 Nov. 1701, to Feb. 1702-3
President and Council	governed,	Feb. 1702-3, to Feb. 1703-4
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	John Evans,	Feb. 1703-4, to Feb. 1708-9
	Charles Gookin,	March 1708-9, to 1717
	Sir William Keith, Bart.	1717, to June 1726
	Patrick Gordon	June 1726, to 1736
	George Thomas,	1738, to 1747
President,	Anthony Palmer,	1747, to 1748
Deputy Lieutenant-Gov.	James Hamilton,	1748, to Oct. 1754
	Robert Hunter Morris,	Oct. 1754, to 19 Aug. 1756
	William Denny,	19 Aug. 1756, to 17 Nov. 1759
	James Hamilton,	17 Nov. 1759, to 31 Oct. 1763
	John Penn,	31 Oct. 1763, to 6 May, 1771
President,	James Hamilton,	6 May 1771, to 16 Oct. 1771
Lieutenant-Governor,	Richard Penn,	16 Oct. 1771.
	Thomas Wharton,	March 1777, to April 1778
Presidents of the Supreme	Joseph Reed,	Oct. 1778, to Oct. 1781
Executive Council of	William Moore,	Nov. 1781, to Nov. 1782
the State of Penn-	John Dickinson,	Nov. 1782, to Oct. 1785
sylvania.	Benjamin Franklin,	Oct. 1785, to Oct. 1788
	Thomas Mifflin,	Oct. 1788, to Oct. 1790
Governor,	Thomas Mifflin, Oct. 1790.	

DELAWARE.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles. Sq. Miles.
 Length 92 } between $38^{\circ} 30'$ and 40° N. Lat. }
 Breadth 24 } 0° and $1^{\circ} 45'$ W. Long. } 2,000

BOUNDARIES AND NAME.]

BOUNDED on the east, by the river and bay of the same name, and the Atlantic ocean; on the south, by a line from Fenwick's Island, in latitude $38^{\circ} 29' 30''$, drawn west till it intersects what is commonly called the *tangent* line, dividing it from the State of Maryland; on the west, by the said tangent line, passing northward up the peninsula, till it touches the western part of the territorial circle; and thence on the north, by the said circle, described with a radius of 12 miles about the town of Newcastle.

This State appears to have derived its name from Lord *Delawar*, who completed the settlement of Virginia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This State is divided into three counties, which are subdivided into hundreds.

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Slaves.	Chief Towns.
NEWCASTLE	19,686	2562	Newcastle
KENT	18,920	2300	DOVER
SUSSEX	20,488	4025	Lewes
Total	59,094	8887	

Before the revolution this district of country was denominated, "*The three lower Counties.*"

RIVERS AND CREEKS.] The eastern side of the State is indented with a large number of creeks, or small rivers, which generally have a short course, soft banks, numerous shoals, and are skirted with very extensive marshes, and empty into the river and bay of Delaware. In the southern and western parts of this State spring the head waters of Pocomoke, Wicomico, Nanticoke, Choptank, Chesier, Sassafras, and Bohemia rivers, all falling into Chesapeak bay, and some of them are navigable 20 or 30 miles into the country, for vessels of 50 or 60 tons.

PUBLIC IMPROVEMENTS.] Just before the commencement of the war, a work of considerable importance was begun at Lewes, in the southern part of the State, viz. the erection of a bridge and causeway from the town, over the creek and marsh to the opposite cape. This expensive work was just completed when the British ships first came into the road of Lewes. In order to prevent too easy a communication, they partially removed it; and it being afterwards neglected, it was in complete ruins at the close of the war. A bridge, upon the same plan, but upon a new foundation, has lately been erected at the sole expense of individuals: it extends about a quarter of a mile from the town to the beach, over a wide creek and marsh. The inhabitants are compensated for their expense, by the facility of the communication between the town and the cape.

Several canals in different parts of this State are contemplated, one of which is down the waters of the Brandywine.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The State of Delaware, the upper parts of the county of Newcastle excepted, is, to speak generally, extremely low and level. Large quantities of stagnant water, at particular seasons of the year, overspreading a great proportion of the land, render it equally unfit for the purposes of agriculture, and injurious to the health of the inhabitants. The spine, or highest ridge of the peninsula, runs through the State of Delaware, inclined to the eastern or Delaware side. It is designated in Suffex, Kent, and part of Newcastle county, by a remarkable chain of swamps, from which the waters descend on each side, passing on the east to the Delaware, and on the west to the Chesapeak. Many of the shrubs and plants growing in these swamps are similar to those found on the highest mountains.

Delaware is chiefly an agricultural State. It includes a very fertile tract of country; and scarcely any part of the Union can be selected more adapted to the different purposes of agriculture, or in which a greater variety of the most useful productions can be so conveniently and plentifully reared. The soil along the Delaware river, and from eight to ten miles into the interior country, is generally a rich clay, producing large timber, and well adapted to the various purposes of agriculture. From thence to the swamps above mentioned the soil is light, sandy, and of an inferior quality.

The general aspect of the country is very favourable for cultivation. Excepting some of the upper parts of the county of Newcastle, the surface of the State is very little broken or irregular. The heights of Christiana are lofty and commanding; some of the hills of Brandywine are rough and stony; but descending from these, and a few others, the lower country is so little diversified as almost to form one extended plain. In the county of Newcastle, the soil consists of a strong clay; in Kent, there is a considerable mixture of sand; and in Suffex, the quantity of sand altogether predominates. Wheat is the staple of this State: it grows here in such perfection as not only to be particularly sought by the manufacturers of flour throughout the Union, but also to be distinguished and preferred, for its superior qualities, in foreign markets. This wheat possesses an uncommon softness and whiteness, very favourable to the manufacture of superfine flour, and in other respects far exceeds the hard and flinty grains raised in general on the high lands. Besides wheat, this State generally produces plentiful crops of Indian corn, barley, rye, oats, flax, buck-wheat, and potatoes. It abounds in natural and artificial meadows, containing a large variety of grasses. Hemp, cotton, and silk, if properly attended to, doubtless would flourish very well.

The county of Suffex, besides producing a considerable quantity of grain, particularly of Indian corn, possesses excellent grazing lands. This county also exports very large quantities of lumber, obtained chiefly from an extensive swamp, called the *Indian River* or *Cypreis Swamp*, lying partly within this State, and partly in the State of Maryland. This morass extends six miles from east to west, and nearly twelve from north to south, including an area of nearly 50,000 acres of land. The whole of this swamp is a high and level basin, very wet, though undoubtedly the highest land between the sea and the bay, whence the Pocomoke descends on one side, and Indian river and St. Martin's on the other. This swamp contains a great variety of plants, trees, wild beasts, birds, and reptiles.

CHIEF TOWNS.] DOVER, in the county of Kent, is the seat of government. It stands on Jones' Creek, a few miles from the Delaware river, and consists of about 100 houses, principally of brick. Four streets intersect each other at right angles, whose

whose incidencies form a spacious parade, on the east side of which is an elegant state-house of brick. The town has a lively appearance, and drives on a considerable trade with Philadelphia. Wheat is the principal article of export. The landing is five or six miles from the town of Dover.

NEWCASTLE is 35 miles below Philadelphia, on the west bank of Delaware river. It was first settled by the Swedes, about the year 1627, and called Stockholm; it was afterwards taken by the Dutch, and called New Amsterdam. When it fell into the hands of the English, it was called by its present name. It contains about 60 houses, which have the aspect of decay, and was formerly the seat of government. This is the first town that was settled on Delaware river.

WILMINGTON is situated a mile and a half west of Delaware river, on Christiana Creek, 28 miles southward from Philadelphia. It is much the largest and pleasantest town in the State, containing upwards of 400 houses, which are handsomely built upon a gentle ascent of an eminence, and show to great advantage as you sail up the Delaware; it contains about 2,400 inhabitants. In this town are two Presbyterian churches, a Swedish Episcopal church, a Baptist and a Quaker meeting, and a few Methodists. There is also a flourishing academy of about 40 or 50 scholars, who are taught the languages, and some of the sciences. This academy, in proper time, is intended to be erected into a college. There is another academy at Newark in this county, which was incorporated in 1769. These academies were interrupted during the war, and their funds ruined by the depreciation of Continental paper money. Since the peace learning seems to revive and flourish.

MILFORD is situated at the source of a small river, 15 miles from Delaware bay, and 150 southward of Philadelphia. This town, which contains about 80 houses, has been built, except one house, since the revolution; it is laid out with much good taste, and is by no means disagreeable. The inhabitants are Episcopalians, Quakers, and Methodists.

DUCK CREEK CROSS ROADS—is 12 miles north-west from Dover, and has eighty or ninety houses, which stand on one street. It carries on a considerable trade with Philadelphia, and is one of the largest wheat markets in the State. Kent is also a place of considerable trade.

LEWES is situated a few miles above the light-house on Cape Henlopen; it contains about 150 houses, built chiefly on a street, which is more than three miles in length, and extending along a creek which separates the town from the pitch of the cape. The situation is high, and commands a full prospect of the light-house and the sea. The court-house and gaol are commodious buildings, and give an air of importance to the town. The situation of this place must at some future time render it considerably important. Placed at the entrance of a bay, which is crowded with vessels from all parts of the world, and which is frequently closed with ice a part of the winter season, necessity seems to require, and nature seems to suggest, the forming this port into a harbour for shipping. Nothing has prevented this heretofore but the deficiency of water in the creek. This want can be cheaply and easily supplied by a small canal, so as to afford a passage for the waters of Rehoboth into Lewes creek, which would ensure an adequate supply. The circumjacent country is beautifully diversified with hills, wood, streams, and lakes, forming an agreeable contrast to the naked sandy beach, which terminates in the cape; but it is greatly infested with musketoes and sand flies.

TRADE AND MANUFACTURES.] We have already mentioned wheat as the staple commodity of this State. This is manufactured into flour and exported in large quantities. The exports from the port of Wilmington, where a number of square-rigged vessels are owned, for the year 1786, in the article of flour, was 20,783 barrels superfine, 457 ditto common, 256 ditto middlings, and 346 ditto ship stuff. The manufacture of flour is carried to a higher degree of perfection in this State, than in any others in the Union. Besides the well-constructed mills on red clay and white clay creeks, and other streams in different parts of the State, the celebrated collection of mills at Brandywine merit a particular description. Here are to be seen, at one view, 12 merchant mills (besides a saw mill) which have double that number of pairs of stones, all of superior dimensions, and excellent construction. These mills are three miles from the mouth of the creeks on which they stand, half a mile from Wilmington, and 27 from Philadelphia, on the post road from the eastern to the southern States. They are called the Brandywine mills, from the stream on which they are erected. This stream rises near the Welch mountains in Pennsylvania, and after a winding course of 30 or 40 miles through falls, which furnish numerous seats (130 of which are already occupied) for every species of water works, empties into Christiana creek, near Wilmington. The quantity of wheat manufactured at these mills annually is not accurately ascertained: it is estimated, however, by the best informed on the subject, that these mills can grind 400,000 bushels in a year. But although they are capable of manufacturing this quantity yearly, yet, from the difficulty of procuring a permanent supply of grain, the instability of the flour-market, and other circumstances, there are not commonly more than from about 290 to 300,000 bushels of wheat and corn manufactured here annually. In the fall of 1789, and spring of 1790, there were made at the Brandywine mills 50,000 barrels of superfine flour, 1354 ditto of common, 400 ditto middlings, as many of ship stuff, and 2000 ditto corn meal. The quantity of wheat and corn ground, from which this flour, &c. was made, was 308,000 bushels, equal to the export in those articles from the port of Philadelphia for the same year.

These mills give employment to about 200 persons, viz. about 40 to tend the mills, from 50 to 70 coopers, to make casks for the flour, a sufficient number to man 12 sloops, of about 30 tons each, which are employed in the transportation of the wheat and flour, the rest in various other occupations connected with the mills. The navigation quite to these mills is such, that a vessel carrying 1000 bushels of wheat may be laid along side of any of these mills; and beside some of them the water is of sufficient depth to admit vessels of twice the above size. The vessels are unloaded with astonishing expedition. There have been instances of 1000 bushels being carried to the height of four stories in four hours. It is frequently the case, that vessels with 1000 bushels of wheat come up with flood tide, unlade, and go away the succeeding ebb, with 300 barrels of flour on board. In consequence of the machines introduced by the ingenious Mr. Oliver Evans, three quarters of the manual labour before found necessary is now sufficient for every purpose. By means of these machines, when made use of in the full extent proposed by the inventor, the wheat will be received on the shallop's deck, thence carried to the upper loft of the mill, and a considerable portion of the same returned in flour on the lower floor, ready for packing, without the assistance of manual labour but in a very small degree, in proportion to the business done. The transportation of flour from these mills to the port of Wilmington does not require half an hour; and it is frequently the case, that a cargo is taken from the mills and delivered

delivered at Philadelphia the same day. The situation of these mills is very pleasant and healthful. The first mill was built here about 50 years since. There is now a small town of forty houses, principally stone and brick, which, together with the mills and the vessels loading and unloading beside them, furnish a charming prospect from the bridge, from whence they are all in full view.

Besides the wheat and flour trade, this State exports lumber and various other articles. The amount of exports for the year ending September 30, 1791, was 199,840 dollars.

LIGHT-HOUSE.] The light-house, near the town of Lewes, was burnt in 1777. Since the war it has been completed and handsomely repaired. It is a fine stone structure, eight stories high; the annual expense of which is estimated at about 650l. currency.

RELIGION.] In this State there is a variety of religious denominations. Of the Presbyterian sect, there are 24 churches; of the Episcopal, 14; of the Baptist, 7; of the Methodist, a considerable number, especially in the two lower counties of Kent and Sussex, the number of their churches is not exactly ascertained. Besides these, there is a Swedish church at Wilmington, which is one of the oldest churches in the United States.

POPULATION.] See table of divisions.

MINERALS.] In the county of Sussex, among the branches of the Nanticoke river, large quantities of bog iron ore are to be found. Before the revolution, this ore was worked to considerable extent; it was thought to be of a good quality, and peculiarly adapted to the purposes of castings. These works have chiefly fallen to decay.

CONSTITUTION.] The constitution of this State begins by declaring some of the rights of the people, and enumerates nearly the same that are mentioned in the declaration of rights of Pennsylvania: it then delegates the legislative power to a General Assembly, consisting of a senate and a house of representatives; and the executive, to a governor. All these are chosen by the people on the first Tuesday of October. The governor for three years; but he is not eligible for the next three; he must be thirty years old, and have been an inhabitant of the State six years, and of the United States twelve years. A plurality of votes makes a choice. The senators are chosen for three years, must be twenty-seven years old, freeholders of 200 acres of land, or possessed of 100l. property, and have been inhabitants of the State three years. They are divided into three classes, the time of one class expiring each year, and their seats being filled by new elections. The representatives are chosen for one year, must be 24 years old, freeholders, and have been inhabitants three years. The constitution provides, that there shall be seven representatives and three senators chosen by each county; but the General Assembly has power to increase the number, where two-thirds of each branch shall think it expedient; provided the number of senators shall never be greater than one half, nor less than one third, of the number of representatives. The General Assembly meets on the first Tuesday of January annually, unless sooner convened by the governor. Each branch has all the powers necessary for a branch of the legislature of a free and independent State. A majority of each constitutes a quorum to do business, and a less number may adjourn from day to day, and compel the attendance of members. They are privileged from arrests, while attending on public business, except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace; and for things said in public debate, are not questionable elsewhere. They are compensated out of the public treasury, from which no money can be drawn but in consequence of appropriation by law.

TERRITORY N.W. OF THE OHIO.

law. Impeachments are made by the Lower House, and tried by the Senate. Revenue bills originate in the House of Representatives, but the Senate may propose alterations. A journal is kept of their proceedings, and published at the end of every session, and the doors of both houses are kept open unless the business require secrecy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force; may remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; may require information from all executive officers, may convene the General Assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them to any time not exceeding three months, when they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform them of affairs concerning the State, recommend to them such measures as he shall judge expedient, and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the Senate, and after him, the speaker of the House of Representatives, shall exercise the office of governor, in case of vacancy. The judicial power is vested in a court of chancery, and several common law courts. The judges are appointed by the governor, and commissioned during good behaviour, and the justices of the peace for seven years; all removable on the address of two thirds of both houses of Assembly. The other officers of the State are appointed, some by the governor, some by the General Assembly, and some by the people. No person concerned in any army or navy contract, or holding any office, except the attorney-general, officers usually appointed by the courts of justice, attorneys at law, and officers in the militia, can be a senator, or representative. The governor can hold no other office. No federal officer can hold an office in this State to which a salary is by law annexed. The clergy are excluded from all civil offices. All officers are impeachable and are bound by oath or affirmation to support the constitution and perform the duties of their office. All free white men, twenty-one years old, having been two years inhabitants, and paid taxes, are electors; and are privileged from arrests in civil actions while attending elections. The General Assembly, with the approbation of the governor, have a right under certain regulations and restrictions to make amendments to this constitution. A convention may also be called where a majority of the people shall signify their wish for it.

The foregoing constitution was ratified on the 12th of June, 1792.

HISTORY.] The reader will find a well-written sketch of the history of this State in the American edition of the Encyclopedia, publishing by Thomas Dobson, in Philadelphia.

TERRITORY N.W. OF THE OHIO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Square Miles.	
Length	900 }	between { 37° and 50° N. Lat. 6° and 23° W. Long. }	411,300
Breadth	700 }		

BOUNDARIES.] THIS extensive tract of country is bounded north, by part of the northern boundary line of the United States; east, by the lakes and Pennsylvania; south, by the Ohio river; west, by the Mississippi. Mr. Hutchins, the late geographer of the United States, estimates that this tract contains 263,040,000 acres, of which 43,040,000 are water; this deducted, there will remain 220,000,000 of

of acres, belonging to the federal government, to be sold for the discharge of the national debt; except a narrow strip of land bordering on the south of Lake Erie, and stretching 120 miles west of the western limit of Pennsylvania, which belongs to Connecticut.

But a small proportion of these lands is yet purchased of the natives, and to be disposed of by Congress. Beginning on the meridian line, which forms the western boundary of Pennsylvania, seven ranges of townships have been surveyed and laid off by order of Congress. As a north and south line strikes the Ohio in an oblique direction, the termination of the seventh range falls upon that river, nine miles above the Muskingum, which is the first large river that falls into the Ohio. It forms the junction 172 miles below Fort Pitt, including the windings of the Ohio, though in a direct line is but ninety miles.

The lands in which the Indian title is extinguished, and which are now purchasing under the United States, are defined within the limits mentioned page 124, to which the reader is referred. On these lands several settlements are commencing, one at Marietta, at the mouth of Muskingum, under the direction of the Ohio company; another between the Miami rivers, under the direction of Colonel Symmes; and a French settlement at Gallipolis. There are several other tracts delineated on the map, which have been granted by Congress to particular companies, and other tracts for particular uses, which remain without any English settlements.

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] That part of this territory in which the Indian title is extinguished, and which is settling under the government of the United States, is divided into four counties as follows:

Counties.	When erected.	Counties.	When erected.
Washington	1788 July 26th	St. Clair	1790 April 27th
Hamilton	1790 Jan. 2d	Knox	1790 June 20th

These counties have been organized with the proper civil and military officers. The county of St. Clair is divided into three districts, viz. the district of Cahokia, the district of Prairie-du-rochers, and the district of Kaskaskias. Courts of general quarter sessions of the peace, county courts of common pleas, and courts of probate, to be held in each of these districts, as if each was a distinct county; the officers of the county to act by deputy, except in the district where they reside.

RIVERS.] The Muskingum is a gentle river, confined by banks so high as to prevent its overflowing. It is 250 yards wide at its confluence with the Ohio, and navigable by large batteaux and barges to the Three Legs; and by small ones to the lake at its head. From thence, by a portage of about one mile, a communication is opened to Lake Erie, through the Cayahoga, which is a stream of great utility, navigable the whole length without any obstruction from falls. From Lake Erie the avenue is well known to the Hudson, in the State of New York.

The Hockhocking resembles the Muskingum, though somewhat inferior in size. It is navigable for large boats about seventy miles, and for small ones much further. On the banks of this very useful stream are found inexhaustible quarries of free-stone, large beds of iron ore, and some rich mines of lead. Coal mines and salt springs are frequent in the neighbourhood of this stream, as they are in every part of the western territory. The salt that may be obtained from those springs will afford an inexhaustible store of that necessary article. Beds of white and blue clay, of an excellent quality, are likewise found here, suitable for the manufacture of glais, crockery, and other earthen wares. Red bole and many other useful fossils have been observed on the branches of this river.

The Scioto is a larger river than either of the preceding, and opens a more extensive navigation. It is passable for large barges for 200 miles, with a portage of only four miles to the Sandusky, a good navigable stream that falls into the Lake Erie. Through the Sandusky and Scioto lies the most common pass from Canada to the Ohio and Mississippi; one of the most extensive and useful communications that are to be found in any country. Prodigious extensions of territory are here connected; and, from the rapidity with which the western parts of Canada, Lake Erie, and the Kentucky countries are settling, we may anticipate an immense intercourse between them. The lands on the borders of these middle streams, from this circumstance alone, aside from their natural fertility, must be rendered vastly valuable. The flour, corn, flax, hemp, &c. raised for exportation in that great country between the Lakes Huron and Ontario, will find an outlet through Lake Erie and these rivers, or down the Mississippi. The Ohio merchant can give a higher price than those of Quebec for these commodities, as they may be transported from the former to Florida and the West India islands, with less expense, risk, and insurance, than from the latter; while the expense from the place of growth to the Ohio will not be one fourth of what it would be to Quebec, and much less than even to the Oneida lake. The stream of Scioto is gentle, no where broken by falls: at some places, in the spring of the year, it overflows its banks, providing for large natural rice plantations. Salt springs, coal mines, white and blue clay, and free-stone, abound in the country adjoining this river.

The Little Miami is too small for batteaux navigation. Its banks are good land, and so high as to prevent, in common, the overflowing of the water.

The Great Miami has a very stoney channel, and a swift stream, but no falls. It is formed of several large branches, which are passable for boats a great distance. One branch comes from the west, and rises in the Wabash country: another rises near the head-waters of Miami river, which runs into Lake Erie; and a short portage divides another branch of Sandusky river. It also interlocks with the Scioto.

The Wabash is a beautiful river, with high and fertile banks. It empties into the Ohio by a mouth 270 yards wide, 1020 miles below Fort Pitt. In the spring, summer, and autumn, it is passable with batteaux drawing three feet water, 412 miles, to Ouatanon, a small French settlement, on the west side of the river; and for large canoes 197 miles further, to the Miami carrying place, nine miles from Miami village. This village stands on Miami river, which empties into the south-west part of Lake Erie. The communication between Detroit, and the Illinois, and Ohio countries, is up Miami river to Miami village, thence, by land, nine miles, when the rivers are high; and from eighteen to thirty when they are low, through a level country to the Wabash, and through the various branches of the Wabash to the places of destination.

A silver mine has been discovered about twenty-eight miles above Ouatanon, on the northern side of the Wabash. Salt springs, lime, free-stone, blue, yellow, and white clay, are found in plenty upon this river.

The rivers Avare and Kaskaskias empty into the Mississippi from the north-east; the former is navigable for boats sixty, and the latter about 130 miles. They both run through a rich country, which has extensive meadows.

Between the Kaskaskias and Illinois rivers, which are eighty-four miles apart, is an extensive tract of level, rich land, which terminates in a high ridge, about fifteen miles before you reach the Illinois river. In this delightful vale are a number of French villages which, together with those of St. Genevieve and St. Louis, on the western side of the Mississippi, contained in 1771, 1273 fencible men.

One hundred and seventy-six miles above the Ohio, and eighteen miles above the Missouri, the Illinois empties into the Mississippi from the north-east by a mouth 400 yards wide. This river is bordered with fine meadows, which in some places extend as far as the eye can reach: this river furnishes a communication with Lake Michigan, by the Chicago river, between which and the Illinois are two portages, the longest of which does not exceed four miles. It receives a number of rivers which are from 20 to 100 yards wide, and navigable for boats from 15 to 180 miles. On the north-western side of this river is a coal mine, which extends for half a mile along the middle of the bank of the river, and about the same distance below the coal mine are two salt ponds, 100 yards in circumference, and several feet in depth. The water is stagnant, and of a yellowish colour; but the French and natives make good salt from it. The soil of the Illinois country is, in general, of a superior quality: its natural growth consists of oak, hickory, cedar, mulberry, &c. hops, dying drugs, medicinal plants of several kinds, and excellent wild grapes. In the year 1769, the French settlers made 110 hogshheads of strong wine from these grapes.

There are many other rivers of equal size and importance with those we have been describing, which are not sufficiently known for accurate descriptions.

POPULATION.] The number of souls in this large tract of country has not been ascertained. From the best data the author has received, the population may be estimated as follows:

Indians (suppose)	-	-	-	65,000*	1792.
Ohio Company purchase	-	-	-	2,500	do.
Col. Symmes' settlements	-	-	-	2,000	do.
Gallipolis, (French settlement) opposite the Kanhawa river	-	-	-	1,000	do.
Vincennes and its vicinity, on the Wabash,	-	-	-	1,500	do.
Kaskaskias and Cahokia	-	-	-	630	1790.
At Grand Ruissseau, village of St. Philip, and Prairie-du-rochers,	-	-	-	240	do.
Total				72,820	

In 1790, there were in the town of Vincennes about forty American families and thirty-one slaves; and on the Mississippi, forty American families and seventy-three slaves, all included in the above estimate. On the Spanish or western side of the Mississippi, there were in 1790, about 1800 souls, principally at Genevieve and St. Louis.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] To the remarks on these heads, interspersed in the description of the rivers, we will add some observations from an anonymous pamphlet published not long since, which we presume are the most authentic, respecting the part of that country which has been purchased of the Indians, of any that have been given.

"The undistinguished terms of admiration that are commonly used in speaking of the natural fertility of the country on the western waters of the United States, would render it difficult, without accurate attention in the surveys, to ascribe a preference to any particular part: or to give a just description of the territory under consideration, without the hazard of being suspected of exaggeration: but in *this* we have the united

* The tribes who inhabit this country are the Piantias, on both sides the Mississippi; the Casquerasquias, on the Illinois; the Piankashaws and other tribes, on the Wabash; the Shawanese, on the Scioto; the Delawares, the Miamis, the Ouiscons, Mascoutens, Sakies, Sioux, Mekekouakis, the Pilans, Powtowatamis, Messagues, Ottawas, Chipewas, and Wiandots. The whole amounting to the above number.

opinion of the geographer, the surveyors, and every traveller that has been intimately acquainted with the country, and marked every natural object with the most scrupulous exactness—That no part of the federal territory unites so many advantages, in point of health, fertility, variety of production, and foreign intercourse, as that which stretches from the Muskingum to the Scioto and the great Miami rivers.*

“Colonel Gordon, in his Journal, speaking of a much larger range of country, in which this is included, and makes unquestionably the finest part, has the following observation: The country on the Ohio is every where pleasant, with large level spots of rich land, and remarkably healthy. One general remark of this nature will serve for the whole tract of the globe comprehended between the western skirts of the Alleghany mountains; thence running south-westwardly to the distance of 500 miles to the Ohio falls; then crossing them northerly to the heads of the rivers that empty themselves into the Ohio; thence east along the ridge that separates the lakes and Ohio streams to French Creek: this country may, from a proper knowledge, be affirmed to be the most healthy, the most pleasant, the most commodious and most fertile spot of earth, known to the European people.

“The lands on the various streams above-mentioned, which fall into the Ohio, are now more accurately known, and may be described with confidence and precision. They are interspersed with all the variety of soil which conduces to pleasantness of situation, and lays the foundation for the wealth of an agricultural and manufacturing people. Large level bottoms, or natural meadows, from twenty to fifty miles in circuit, are every where found bordering the rivers, and variegating the country in the interior parts. These afford as rich a soil as can be imagined, and may be reduced to proper cultivation with very little labour. It is said, that in many of these bottoms a man may clear an acre a day, fit for planting with Indian corn, there being no underwood; and the trees growing very high and large, but not thick together, need nothing but girdling.

“The prevailing growth of timber, and the more useful trees, are, maple or sugar tree, sycamore, black and white mulberry, black and white walnut, butternut, chestnut; white, black, Spanish, and chestnut oaks, hickory, cherry, buckwood or horse chestnut, honey locust, elm, cucumber tree, lynn tree, gum tree, iron wood, ash, aspen, sassafras, crab apple tree, paupaw or custard apple, a variety of plum trees, nine bark spice, and leather-wood bushes. General Parsons measured a black walnut tree near Muskingum, whose circumference, at five feet from the ground, was twenty-two feet. A sycamore, near the same place, measured forty-four feet in circumference, at some distance from the ground. White and black oak, and chestnut, with most of the above-mentioned timbers, grow large and plenty upon the high grounds: both the high and low lands produce vast quantities of natural grapes of various kinds, of which the settlers universally make a sufficiency for their own consumption of rich red wine. It is asserted in the old settlement of St. Vincent, where they have had opportunity to try it, that age will render this wine preferable to most of the European wines. Cotton is the natural production of this country, and grows in great perfection.

“The sugar maple is a most valuable tree for an inland country; any number of inhabitants may be for ever supplied with a sufficiency of sugar, by preserving a few

* A gentleman who has visited this country, supposes this account is a little too highly embellished; he acknowledges that it is a very fine country, but thinks that there are other parts of the western unsettled country, which unite at least as many, if not more advantages, than the tract above mentioned.

trees for the use of each family: a tree will yield about ten pounds of sugar a year, and the labour is very trifling: the sap is extracted in the months of February and March, and granulated, by the simple operation of boiling, to a sugar equal in flavour and whiteness to the best Muscovado.

“ Springs of excellent water abound in every part of this territory; and small and large streams, for mills and other purposes, are actually interspersed, as if by art, that there be no deficiency in any of the conveniences of life.

“ Very little waste land is to be found in any part of this tract of country; there are no swamps but such as may be readily drained, and made into arable and meadow land; and though the hills are frequent, they are gentle and swelling, no where high or incapable of tillage; they are of a deep, rich soil, covered with a heavy growth of timber, and well adapted to the production of wheat, rye, indigo, tobacco, &c.

“ The communications between this country and the sea will be principally in the four following directions:

“ 1. The route through the Scioto and Muskingum to Lake Erie, and so to the river Hudson; which has been already described.

“ 2. The passage up the Ohio and Monongahela to the portage above-mentioned, which leads to the navigable waters of the Patomak; this portage is thirty miles, and will probably be rendered much less by the execution of the plans now on foot for opening the navigation of those waters.

“ 3. The Great Kanlaway, which falls into the Ohio from the Virginia shore, between the Hockhocking and the Scioto, opens an extensive navigation from the south-east, and leaves but eighteen miles portage from the navigable waters of James river in Virginia. This communication for the country between Muskingum and Scioto, will probably be more used than any other for the exportation of manufactures and other light and valuable articles, and especially for the importation of foreign commodities, which may be brought from the Chesapeake to the Ohio much cheaper than they are now carried from Philadelphia to Carlisle, and the other thick-settled back counties of Pennsylvania.*

“ 4. But the current down the Ohio and Mississippi, for heavy articles that suit the Florida and West India markets, such as corn, flour, beef, lumber, &c. will be more frequently loaded than any streams on earth. The distance from the Scioto to the Mississippi is 800 miles, from thence to the sea is 900. This whole course is easily run in fifteen days, and the passage up those rivers is not so difficult as has usually been represented. It is found, by late experiments, that sails are used to great advantage against the current of the Ohio; and it is worthy of observation, that in all probability steam boats will be found to do infinite service in all our extensive river navigation.

“ The design of Congress and of the Ohio Company is, that the settlements shall proceed regularly down the Ohio, and northward to Lake Erie; and it is probable, that not many years will elapse, before the whole country above Miami will be brought to that degree of cultivation, which will exhibit all its latent beauties, and justify those descriptions of travellers which have so often made it the garden of the world, the seat of wealth, and the center of a great empire.

ANIMALS, &c.] “ No country is better stocked with wild game of every kind; innumerable herds of deer and wild cattle are sheltered in the groves, and fed in the

* A gentleman of much observation, and a great traveller in this country, is of opinion, that this communication or route is chimerical.

extensive bottoms that every where abound; an unquestionable proof of the great fertility of the soil: turkies, geese, ducks, swans, teal, pheasants, partridges, &c. are, from observation, believed to be in greater plenty here, than the same poultry are in any part of the old settlements in America.

"The rivers are well stored with fish of various kinds, and many of them of an excellent quality. They are generally large, though of different sizes; the cat fish, which is the largest, and of a delicious flavour, weighs from six to eighty pounds."

ANTIQUITIES AND CURIOSITIES.] The number of old forts found in the Kentucky country are the admiration of the curious, and a matter of much speculation; they are mostly of an oblong form, situated on strong, well-chosen ground, and contiguous to water: when, by whom, and for what purpose these were thrown up, is uncertain; they are undoubtedly very ancient, as there is not the least visible difference in the age or size of the timber growing on or within these forts, and that which grows without; and the old natives have lost all tradition respecting them. Dr. Cutler, who has accurately examined the trees on these forts, and which he thinks, from appearances, are the second growth, is of opinion, that they must have been built upwards of 1000 years ago: they must have been the efforts of a people much more devoted to labour than our present race of Indians; and it is difficult to conceive how they could be constructed without the use of iron tools. At a convenient distance from these always stands a small mound of earth, thrown up in the form of a pyramid, and seems in some measure proportioned to the size of its adjacent fortification. On examination, they have been found to contain a chalky substance, supposed to be bones, and of the human kind.

Under this head we may mention the extensive meadows, or, as the French call them, Prairie, which answer to what, in the southern States, are called Savannas; they are a rich plain, without trees, and covered with grass; some of these, between St. Vincennes and the Mississippi, are thirty or forty miles in extent. In passing them, as far as the eye can reach, there is not a tree to be seen; but there is plenty of deer, wild cattle, bears, and wolves, and innumerable flocks of turkies; these, with the green grass, form a rich and beautiful prospect.

PORTS.] The posts established for the protection of the frontiers are as follow: Franklin, on French Creek; Harmar, at the mouth of Muskingum; Stuben, at the rapids of the Ohio; Fayette, Hamilton, Knox, Jefferson, St. Clair, Marietta, and St. Vincennes.

GOVERNMENT, &c.] By an ordinance of Congress, passed on the 13th of July, 1787, this country, for the purposes of temporary government, was erected into one district, subject, however, to a division, when circumstances shall make it expedient.

In the same ordinance it is provided, that Congress shall appoint a governor, whose commission shall continue in force three years, unless sooner revoked.

The governor must reside in the district, and have a freehold estate therein, in 1000 acres of land, while in the exercise of his office.

Congress, from time to time, are to appoint a secretary, to continue in office four years, unless sooner removed, who must reside in the district, and have an estate of 500 acres of land, while in office.

The business of the secretary is, to keep and preserve the acts and laws of the legislature, and the public records of the district, and the proceedings of the governor in his executive department; and to transmit authentic copies of such acts and proceedings, every six months, to the secretary of Congress.

The

The ordinance provides, that Congress shall appoint three judges, possessed each of 500 acres of land in the district in which they are to reside, and to hold their commissions during good behaviour, any two of whom shall form a court, which shall have a common law jurisdiction. The governor and judges are authorized to adopt and publish in the district, such laws of the original States, criminal and civil, as may be necessary and best suited to the circumstances of the district, and report them to Congress; and, if approved, they shall continue in force till the organization of the General Assembly of the district, who shall have authority to alter them. The governor is to command the militia, and appoint and commission their officers, except general officers, who are to be appointed and commissioned by Congress.

Previously to the organization of the Assembly, the governor is to appoint such magistrates and civil officers, as shall be deemed necessary for the preservation of peace and order.

So soon as there shall be 5000 free male inhabitants of full age in the district, they shall receive authority to elect representatives, one for every 500 free male inhabitants, to represent them in the General Assembly; the representation to increase progressively with the number of free male inhabitants till there be twenty-five representatives; after which, the number and proportion of the representatives shall be regulated by the legislature. A representative must possess, in fee simple, 200 acres of land, and be a resident in the district; and must have been a citizen of the United States, or a resident in the district, three years preceding his election. An elector must have fifty acres of land in the district, must have been a citizen of one of the States, and must be a resident in the district, or must possess the same freehold, and have been two years a resident in the district. The representatives, when duly elected, are to continue in office two years.

The General Assembly, or Legislature, shall consist of the governor, legislative council, and house of representatives. The legislative council shall consist of five members, to continue in office five years, unless sooner removed by Congress; three make a quorum. The council are to be thus appointed: the governor and representatives, when met, shall nominate ten persons, residents in the district, and each possessed of a freehold in 500 acres of land, and return their names to Congress, who shall appoint and commission five of them to serve as aforesaid.

All bills passed by a majority in the house, and in council, shall be referred to the governor for his assent; but no bill, or legislative act whatever, shall be of force without his assent. The governor shall have power to convene, prorogue, and dissolve the General Assembly, when, in his opinion, it shall be expedient.

The legislature, when organized, shall have authority, by joint ballot, to elect a delegate to Congress, who shall have a seat in Congress, with a right of debating, but but not of voting, during this temporary government.

“And for extending the fundamental principles of civil and religious liberty, which form the basis whereon these republics, their laws and constitutions, are erected; to fix and establish those principles as the basis of all laws, constitutions, and governments, which for ever hereafter shall be formed in the said territory; to provide also for the establishment of state and permanent government therein, and for their admission to share in the federal councils on an equal footing with the original States, at as early periods as may be consistent with the general interest:

“It is hereby ordained and declared, by the authority aforesaid, That the following articles shall be considered as articles of compact, between the original States and the people, and States in the said territory, and for ever remain unalterable, unless by common consent, to wit:

“ Article 1st. No person, demeaning himself in a peaceable and orderly manner, shall ever be molested on account of his mode of worship or religious sentiments in the said territory.

“ Article 2d. The inhabitants of the said territory shall always be entitled to the benefits of the writ of habeas corpus, and of the trial by jury, of a proportionate representation of the people in the legislature, and of judicial proceedings, according to the course of the common law: all persons shall be bailable unless for capital offences, where the proof shall be evident, or the presumption great: all fines shall be moderate, and no cruel or unusual punishment shall be inflicted; no man shall be deprived of his liberty or property but by the judgement of his peers, or of the law of the land; and should the public exigencies make it necessary for the common preservation to take any person's property, or to demand his particular services, full compensation shall be made for the same; and in the just preservation of the rights and property, it is understood and declared, that no law ought ever to be made, or have force in the said territory, that shall in any manner whatever interfere with, or affect private contracts or engagements *bona fide*, and without fraud previously formed.

“ Article 3d. Religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to good government and the happiness of mankind, schools and the means of education shall forever be encouraged; the utmost good faith shall always be observed towards the Indians; their lands and property shall never be taken from them without their consent; and in their property, rights, and liberty, they shall never be invaded or disturbed, unless in just and lawful wars authorized by Congress; but laws founded in justice and humanity shall from time to time be made, for preventing wrongs being done to them, and for preserving peace and friendship with them.

“ Article 4th. The said territory, and the States which may be formed therein, shall forever remain a part of this confederacy of the United States of America, subject to the articles of confederation, and to such alterations therein as shall be constitutionally made; and to all the acts and ordinances of the United States, in Congress assembled, conformable thereto. The inhabitants and settlers in the said territory shall be subject to pay a part of the federal debts contracted, or to be contracted, and a proportionable part of the expences of government, to be apportioned on them by Congress, according to the same common rule and measure, by which apportionments thereof shall be made on the other States, and the taxes for paying their proportion, shall be laid and levied by the authority and direction of the legislatures of the district, or districts, or new states, as in the original States, within the time agreed upon by the United States in Congress assembled. The legislatures of those districts, or new states shall never interfere with the primary disposal of the soil by the United States, in Congress assembled, nor with any regulations Congress may find necessary for securing the title in such soil to the *bona fide* purchasers. No tax shall be imposed on lands the property of the United States; and in no case shall non-resident proprietors be taxed higher than residents. The navigable waters leading into the Mississippi and St. Lawrence, and the carrying places between the same, shall be common highways, and for ever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said territory, as to the citizens of the United States, and those of any other States that may be admitted into the confederacy, without any tax, impost, or duty, therefor.

“ Article 5th. There shall be formed in the said territory, not less than three, nor more than five States; and the boundaries of the States, as soon as Virginia shall alter her act of cession, and consent to the same, shall become fixed and established as follows, viz. The western State in the said territory shall be bounded on the Mississippi,

the Ohio, and Wabash rivers; a direct line drawn from the Wabash and Post Vincents due north to the territorial line between the United States and Canada, and by the said territorial line to the lake of the Woods and the Mississippi. The middle State shall be bounded by the said direct line, the Wabash from Post Vincents to the Ohio; by the Ohio by a direct line drawn due north from the mouth of the Great Miami to the said territorial line, and by the said territorial line. The eastern State shall be bounded by the last-mentioned direct line, the Ohio, Pennsylvania, and the said territorial line: Provided however, and it is further understood and declared, that the boundaries of these three States shall be subject so far to be altered, that if Congress hereafter shall find it expedient, they shall have authority to form one, or two States, in that part of the said territory which lies north of an east and west line drawn through the southerly bend or extreme of Lake Michigan; and when any of the said States shall have 60,000 free inhabitants therein, such State shall be admitted by its delegates into the Congress of the United States, on an equal footing with the original States in all respects whatever; and shall be at liberty to form a permanent constitution and state government: Provided the constitution and government so to be formed shall be republican, and in conformity to the principles contained in these articles; and so far as it can be consistent with the general interest of the confederacy, such admission shall be allowed at an earlier period, and when there may be a less number of free inhabitants in the State than 60,000.

“Article 6th. There shall be neither slavery nor involuntary servitude in the said territory, otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted: Provided always, that any person escaping into the same, from whom labour or service is lawfully claimed in any of the original States, such fugitive may be lawfully reclaimed, and conveyed to the person claiming his or her labour or service as aforesaid.”

Such is the present government of the Western Territory, and such the political obligations of the adventurers into this fertile and delightful part of the United States.

In the ordinance of Congress, for the government of this territory, it is provided, that after the said territory acquires a certain degree of population, it shall be divided into States. The eastern State, that is thus provided to be made, is bounded on the Great Miami on the west, and by the Pennsylvania line on the east. The center of this State will fall between the Scioto and the Hockhocking. At the mouth of one of these rivers will probably be the seat of government for this State; and, if we may indulge the sublime contemplation of beholding the whole territory of the United States settled by an enlightened people, and continued under one extended government, on the river Ohio, and not far from this spot, will be the seat of empire for the whole dominion. This is central to the whole; it will best accommodate every part; it is the most pleasant, and probably the most healthful.

The settlement of this country has been checked, for several years past, by the unhappy Indian war, an amicable termination of which, it is ardently wished, might speedily take place.

S O U T H E R N S T A T E S.

The THIRD, and much the largest GRAND DIVISION of the UNITED STATES comprehends

MARYLAND,
VIRGINIA,
KENTUCKY,
NORTH CAROLINA,

TERRITORY SOUTH of OHIO,
SOUTH CAROLINA, and
GEORGIA.

THIS extensive division is bounded north by Pennsylvania and the Ohio river; west by the Mississippi; south by East and West Florida; east by the Atlantic ocean and the Delaware State. It is intersected in a N. E. and S. W. direction, by the range of Allegany mountains, which give rise to many noble rivers, which fall either into the Atlantic on the east, or the Mississippi on the west. From the sea coast, sixty, eighty, and in some parts 100 miles back towards the mountains, the country, generally speaking, is nearly a dead level, and a very large proportion of it is covered, in its natural state, with pitch pines. In the neighbourhood of stagnant waters, which abound in this level country, the inhabitants are sickly. In the back, hilly, and mountainous country, they are as healthy as in any part of America.

This district of the Union contains upwards of one million nine hundred thousand inhabitants, of whom 648,439 are slaves, which is *thirteen fourteenths* of the whole number of slaves in the United States. The influence of slavery has produced a very distinguishing feature in the general character of the inhabitants, which, though now discernible to their disadvantage, has been softened and meliorated by the benign effects of the revolution, and the progress of liberty and humanity.

The following may be considered as the principal productions of this division; tobacco, rice, indigo, wheat, corn, cotton, tar, pitch, turpentine, and lumber.

In this district is fixed the permanent seat of the general government.

M A R Y L A N D.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Square Miles.
Length	134	between { 37° 56' and 39° 44' N. Lat. } { ° and 4° 30' W. Lon. }	14,000
Breadth	110		one fourth of which is water.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Pennsylvania; east, by Delaware State and the Atlantic ocean; south and west, by Virginia.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This State is divided into nineteen counties, eleven of which are on the *Western*, and eight on the *Eastern* shore of Chesapeak bay.

Counties.

Counties.		No. Inhabitants.	Counties.		No. Inhabitants.
Western Shore.	Hartford	14,976	Eastern Shore.	Cecil	13,625
	Baltimore	25,434		Kent	12,836
	Do. Town & Precincts	13,503		Queen Ann	15,463
	Ann Arundel	22,598		Caroline	9,506
	Frederick	30,791		Talbot	13,084
	Allegany	4,809		Somerset	15,610
	Washington	15,822		Dorchester	15,875
	Montgomery	18,003	Worcester	11,640	
	Prince George	21,344			
Calvert	8,652	Eastern Shore	107,639		
Charles	20,613	Western Shore	212,089		
St. Mary's	15,544				
Total		212,089	Total in the State		319,728
Number of Slaves in the State 103,036.					

Each of the counties sends four representatives to the house of delegates, besides which the city of Annapolis, and town of Baltimore, send each two.

BAYS AND RIVERS.] Chesapeak bay, as we have already hinted, divides this State into the eastern and western divisions. This bay, which is the largest in the United States, was particularly described in the general account of the United States. It affords many good fisheries, and is remarkable for the excellence of its crabs, and also for a particular species of wild duck, called "canvas back." In a commercial view, it is of immense advantage to the State; it receives a number of large rivers. From the eastern shore in Maryland, among other smaller ones, it receives Pocomoke, Nantikoke, Choptank, Chester, and Elk rivers. From the north, the rapid Susquehannah; and from the west, Patapsco, Severn, Patuxent, and Patomak, half of which is in Maryland, and half in Virginia. Except the Susquehannah and Patomak, these are small rivers. Patapsco river is but about thirty or forty yards wide at the ferry, just before it empties into the basin upon which Baltimore stands; its source is in York county in Pennsylvania; its course is southwardly till it reaches Elkridge landing, about eight miles westward of Baltimore; it then turns eastward, in a broad bay-like fiream, by Baltimore, which it leaves on the north, and passes into the Chesapeak.

The entrance into Baltimore harbour, about a mile below Fell's Point, is hardly pistol shot across, and of course may be easily defended against naval force.

Severn is a short, inconsiderable river, passing by Annapolis, which it leaves to the south, emptying, by a broad mouth, into the Chesapeak.

Patuxent is a larger river than the Patapsco; it rises in Ann Arundel county, and runs south-eastwardly, and then east into the bay, fifteen or twenty miles north of the mouth of Patomak. There are several small rivers, such as Wighcocomico, Eastern Branch, Monocacy, and Conegocheague, which empty into Patomak river from the Maryland side.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] East of the blue ridge of mountains, which stretches across the western part of this State, the land, like that in all the southern States, is generally level and free of stones; and appears to have been made much in the same way; of course the soil must be similar, and the natural growth not remarkably different.

The ground is uniformly level and low in most of the counties on the eastern shore, and consequently covered in many places with stagnant water, except where it is intersected by numerous creeks. Here also are large tracts of marsh, which, during the day, load the atmosphere with vapour, that falls in dew in the close of the summer and fall seasons, which are sickly. The spring and summer are most healthy.

The soil of the good land in Maryland is of such a nature and quality as to produce from twelve to sixteen bushels of wheat, or from twenty to thirty bushels of Indian corn per acre. Ten bushels of wheat, and fifteen bushels of corn per acre, may be the annual average crops in the State at large.

Wheat and tobacco are the staple commodities. Tobacco is generally cultivated in sets, by negroes, in the following manner: The seed is sown in beds of fine mould, and transplanted the beginning of May; the plants are set at the distance of three or four feet from each other, and are hilled and kept continually free of weeds: when as many leaves have shot out as the soil will nourish to advantage, the top of the plant is broken off, which prevents its growing higher: it is carefully kept clear of worms, and the suckers, which put out between the leaves, are taken off at proper times, till the plant arrives at perfection, which is in August: when the leaves turn of a brownish colour, and begin to be spotted, the plant is cut down and hung up to dry, after having sweated in heaps one night. When it can be handled without crumbling, which is alway in moist weather, the leaves are stripped from the stalk, and tied in bundles, and packed for exportation in hogsheds containing 800 or 900 pounds. No suckers nor ground leaves are allowed to be merchantable. An industrious person may manage 6000 plants of tobacco, (which yield 1000lb.) and four acres of Indian corn.

In the interior country, on the uplands, considerable quantities of hemp and flax are raised. As long ago as 1751, in the month of October, no less than sixty waggon, loaded with flax-seed, came down to Baltimore from the back country.

Two articles are said to be peculiar to Maryland, viz. the genuine *white* wheat, which grows in Kent, Queen Ann's and Talbot counties, on the eastern shore, and which degenerates in other places, and the bright *kite's foot* tobacco, which is produced at Elkridge, on the Patuxent, on the western shore.

Among other kinds of timber is the oak, of several kinds, which is of a straight grain, and easily rives into staves, for exportation. The black walnut is in demand for cabinets, tables, and other furniture. The apples of this State are large, but mealy; their peaches plenty and good: from these the inhabitants distil cyder, brandy, and peach brandy.

The forests abound with nuts of various kinds, which are collectively called *mast*; on this mast vast numbers of swine are fed, which run wild in the woods: these swine, when fatted, are caught, killed, barrelled, and exported in great quantities. This traffic formerly was carried on to a very considerable extent; Douglas says, that "in the year 1733, which was a good mast year, one gentleman, a planter and merchant in Virginia, salted up 3000 barrels of pork."

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State is exhibited in the foregoing table: by that it appears, that the number of inhabitants in the State, including the negroes, is 319,728, which is nearly twenty-three for every square mile. The inhabitants, except in the populous towns, live on their plantations, often several miles distant from each other. To an inhabitant of the middle, and especially of the eastern States, which are thickly populated, they appear to live very retired and unsocial lives. The effects of this comparative solitude are visible in the countenances,

as well as in the manners and dress of many of the country people. You observe comparatively little of that cheerful sprightliness of look and action, which is the invariable and genuine offspring of social intercourse; nor do you find that attention paid to dress which is common, and which decency and propriety have rendered necessary among people who are liable to receive company almost every day: unaccustomed, in a great measure, to frequent and friendly visits, they often suffer too much negligence in their dress. As the negroes perform all the manual labour, their masters are left to faunter away life in sloth, and too often in ignorance. These observations, however, must, in justice, be limited to the people in the country, and to those particularly whose poverty or parsimony prevents their spending a part of their time in populous towns, or otherwise mingling with the world; and with these limitations, they will equally apply to all the southern States. The inhabitants of the populous towns, and those from the country who have intercourse with them, are, in their manners and customs, genteel and agreeable.

That pride which grows on slavery, and is habitual to those who, from their infancy, are taught to believe and to feel their superiority, is a visible characteristic of the inhabitants of Maryland; but with this characteristic we must not fail to connect that of hospitality to strangers, which is equally universal and obvious. Many of the women possess all the amiable, and many of the elegant accomplishments of their sex.

The inhabitants are made up of various nations of many different religious sentiments; few general observations, therefore, of a characteristic kind will apply: it may be said, however, with great truth, that they are in general very federal, and friends to good government. They owe little money as a State, and are willing and able to discharge their debts: their credit is very good; and although they have so great a proportion of slaves, yet a number of influential gentlemen have evinced their humanity and their disposition to abolish so disreputable a traffic, by forming themselves into a society for the abolition of negro slavery.

CHIEF TOWNS.] ANNAPOLIS (city) is the capital of Maryland, and the wealthiest town of its size in America: it is situated at the mouth of Severn river, on a healthy spot, 30 miles south of Baltimore: it is a place of little note in the commercial world. The houses, about 260 in number, are generally large and elegant, indicative of great wealth: the number of inhabitants does not exceed 2000. The design of those who planned the city was to have the whole in the form of a circle, with the streets like radii, beginning at the center where the State House stands; and thence diverging in every direction. The principal part of the buildings are arranged agreeably to this awkward plan. The State House is an elegant building.

BALTIMORE has had the most rapid growth of any town on the continent, and is the fourth in size and the fifth in trade in the United States.* It lies in latitude $39^{\circ} 21'$, on the north side of Patapsco river, around what is called the Basin, in which the water, at common tides, is about five or six feet deep. Baltimore is divided into the town and Fell's point by a creek, over which are two bridges; but the houses extend, in a sparse situation, from one to the other. At Fell's point the water is deep enough for ships of burden; but small vessels only go up to the town. The situation of the town is low, and was formerly unhealthy; but the increase of houses, and, of course, of smoke, the tendency of which is to destroy or to dispel damp and unwholesome vapours, and the improvements that have been made, particularly that of paving the streets, have

* In point of size, the towns in the United States may be ranked in this order--Philadelphia, New York, Boston, Baltimore, Charlestown, &c. In point of trade, New York, Philadelphia, Boston, Charlestown, Baltimore, &c.

rendered it tolerably healthy. The houses were numbered in 1787, and found to be 1955; about 1200 of which were in the town, and the rest at Fell's point: the present number is about 2300. The number of warehouses and stores is 164, and of churches nine, which belong to German Calvinists and Lutherans, Episcopalians, Presbyterians, Roman Catholics, Baptists, Methodists, Quakers, Nicolites, or New Quakers. The number of inhabitants in the town and precincts, according to the census of 1790, was 13,503. There are many very respectable families in Baltimore who live genteelly, are hospitable to strangers, and maintain a friendly and improving intercourse with each other; but the bulk of the inhabitants, recently collected from almost all quarters of the world, bent on the pursuit of wealth, varying in their habits, their manners and their religions, have yet their general character to form.

Market-street is the principal street in the town, and runs nearly east and west a mile in length, parallel with the water: this is crossed by several other streets leading from the water, a number of which, particularly Calvert, South, and Gay-streets, are well built. North and east of the town the land rises and affords a fine prospect of the town and bay. Belvidera, the seat of Colonel Howard, exhibits a fine landscape—the town—the point—the shipping, both in the basin and at Fell's point—the bay, as far as the eye can reach—rising ground on the right and left of the harbour—a grove of trees on the declivity at the right—a stream of water breaking over the rocks at the foot of the hill on the left—all conspire to complete the beauty and grandeur of the prospect.

GEORGETOWN stands on the bank of the River Patomak, about 160 miles from its entrance into Chesapeake Bay. The ground on which it stands is very broken, being a cluster of little hills, which, though at present elevated considerably above the surface of the river, were, probably, at some former period overflowed, as at the depth of eight or ten feet below the surface marine shells have been found. Dr. Martin concludes an account of the climate and diseases of this town, in the following words:

“Upon the whole, Georgetown and its vicinity may be considered as a healthy part of America; and in any disputes about the propriety of the seat of the general government being fixed here, no objection can be urged against it on account of its diseases.”

FREDERICKTOWN is a fine flourishing inland town, of upwards of 300 houses, built principally of brick and stone, and mostly on one broad street: it is situated in a fertile country, about four miles south of Catokton mountain, and is a place of considerable trade: it has four places for public worship; one for Presbyterians, two for Dutch Lutherans and Calvinists, and one for Baptists; besides a public gaol and a brick market-house.

HAGARSTOWN is but little inferior to Fredericktown, and is situated in the beautiful and well-cultivated valley of Conegocheague, and carries on a considerable trade with the western country.

ELLTON is situated near the head of Chesapeake bay, on a small river which bears the name of the town. It enjoys great advantages from the carrying-trade between Baltimore and Philadelphia. The tides ebb and flow to this town.

The city of WASHINGTON, in the territory of COLUMBIA, was ceded, by the States of Virginia and Maryland, to the United States, and by them established as the seat of their government, after the year 1800. This city, which is now building, stands at the junction of the rivers Patomak and the Eastern branches, latitude $38^{\circ} 53''$ north, extending nearly four miles up each, and including a tract of territory, exceeded, in point of convenience, salubrity, and beauty, by none in America; for although the land in general appears level, yet, by gentle and gradual swellings, a variety of elegant prospects are produced, and a sufficient descent formed for conveying off

off the water occasioned by rain. Within the limits of the city are a great number of excellent springs; and by digging wells, water of the best quality may readily be had. Besides, the never-failing streams, that now run through that territory, may also be collected for the use of the city. The waters of Reedy branch and of Tiber creek may be conveyed to the President's house. The source of Tiber creek is elevated about 236 feet above the level of the tide in said creek. The perpendicular height of the ground on which the capital is to stand, is 78 feet above the level of the tide in Tiber creek: the water of Tiber creek may, therefore, be conveyed to the capital, and, after watering that part of the city, may be destined to other useful purposes.

The Eastern branch is one of the safest and most commodious harbours in America, being sufficiently deep for the largest ships for about four miles above its mouth, while the channel lies close along the bank adjoining the city, and affords a large and convenient harbour. The Patomak, although only navigable for small craft, for a considerable distance from its banks next to the city (excepting about half a mile above the junction of the rivers) will nevertheless afford a capacious summer harbour; as an immense number of ships may ride in the great channel, opposite to and below the city.

The situation of this metropolis is upon the great post road, equi-distant from the northern and southern extremities of the Union, and nearly so from the Atlantic and Pittsburg, upon the best navigation, and in the midst of a commercial territory, probably the richest, and commanding the most extensive internal resources of any in America. It has therefore many advantages to recommend it, as an eligible place for the permanent seat of the general government; and as it is likely to be speedily built, and otherwise improved, by the public-spirited enterprize of the people of the United States, and even by foreigners, it may be expected to grow up with a degree of rapidity hitherto unparalleled in the annals of cities.

The plan of this city appears to contain some important improvements upon that of the best planned cities in the world, combining, in a remarkable degree, convenience, regularity, elegance of prospect, and a free circulation of air. The positions for the different public edifices, and for the several squares and areas of different shapes as they are laid down, were first determined on the most advantageous ground, commanding the most extensive prospects, and from their situation, susceptible of such improvements as either use or ornament may hereafter require. The Capitol will be situated on a most beautiful eminence, commanding a complete view of every part of the city, and of a considerable part of the country around. The President's house will stand on a rising ground, possessing a delightful water prospect, together with a commanding view of the Capitol, and the most material parts of the city. Lines, or avenues, of direct communication, have been devised to connect the most distant and important objects. These transverse avenues, or diagonal streets, are laid out on the most advantageous ground for prospect and convenience, and are calculated not only to produce a variety of charming prospects, but greatly to facilitate the communication throughout the city. North and south lines, intersected by others running due east and west, make the distribution of the city into streets, squares, &c. and those lines have been so combined as to meet at certain given points, with the divergent avenues, so as to form, on the spaces *first determined*, the different squares or areas. The grand avenues, and such streets as lead immediately to public places, are from 130 to 160 feet wide, and may be conveniently divided into footways, a walk planted with trees on each side, and a paved way for carriages. The other streets are from 90 to 110 feet wide.

In order to execute this plan, Mr. Ellicott drew a true meridional line by celestial observation, which passes through the area intended for the Capitol. This line he
crossed

crossed by another, running due east and west, which passes through the same area. These lines were accurately measured, and made the bases on which the whole plan was executed. He ran all the lines by a transit instrument, and determined the acute angles by actual measurement, leaving nothing to the uncertainty of the compass.

MINES AND MANUFACTURES.] Mines of iron ore, of a superior quality, abound in many parts of the State. Furnaces for running this ore into pigs and hollow ware, and forges to refine pig iron into bars, are numerous, and worked to great extent and profit. This is the only manufacture of importance carried on in the State, except it be that of wheat into flour and curing tobacco.

TRADE.] The trade of Maryland is principally carried on from Baltimore, with the other States, with the West Indies, and with some parts of Europe. To these places they send annually about 30,000 hogheads of tobacco, besides large quantities of wheat, flour, pig iron, lumber, and corn; beans, pork, and flax seed in smaller quantities; and receive in return, clothing for themselves and negroes, and other dry goods, wines, spirits, sugars, and other West India commodities. The balance is generally in their favour.

			Dols.	Cts.
The total amount of exports from Baltimore from Oct. 1,				
1789, to Sept. 30, 1790, was	—	—	2,027,777	64
Value of imports for the same time	—	—	1,945,899	55
Exports from Oct. 1, 1790, to Sept. 30, 1791	—	—	3,131,227	55

During the last mentioned period, the quantity of wheat exported was 205,571 bushels; Indian corn, 205,643 ditto; buck wheat, 4,286 ditto; peas, 10,619 ditto; besides 151,445 barrels of wheat flour; 4,325 ditto, Indian meal; 6,761 ditto, bread; and 3,104 kegs of crackers.

RELIGION.] The Roman Catholics, who were the first settlers in Maryland, are the most numerous religious sect. Besides these, there are Protestant Episcopalians, English, Scotch, and Irish Presbyterians, German Calvinists, German Lutherans, Friends, Baptists, Methodists, Mennonists, Nicolites, or new Quakers; who all enjoy liberty of conscience.

SEMINARIES OF LEARNING, &c.] Washington academy, in Somerset county, was instituted by law in 1779: it was founded and is supported by voluntary subscriptions and private donations, and is authorized to receive gifts and legacies, and to hold 2000 acres of land. A supplement to the law, passed in 1784, increased the number of trustees from eleven to fifteen.

In 1782, a college was instituted at Chestertown, in Kent county, and was honoured with the name of WASHINGTON COLLEGE, after President Washington. It is under the management of 24 visitors or governors, with power to supply vacancies and hold estates, whose yearly value shall not exceed 6000*l.* current money. By a law enacted in 1787, a permanent fund was granted to this institution of 1250*l.* a year, currency, out of the monies arising from marriage licenses, fines, and forfeitures on the Eastern shore.

St. John's College was instituted in 1784, to have also 24 trustees, with power to keep up the succession by supplying vacancies, and to receive an annual income of 9000*l.* A permanent fund is assigned this college, of 1750*l.* a year, out of the monies arising from marriage licenses, ordinary licenses, fines and forfeitures, on the western shore. This college is to be at Annapolis, where a building is now prepared for it. Very liberal subscriptions were obtained towards founding and carrying on these seminaries. The two colleges constitute one university, by the name of "the University of Maryland," whereof the governor of the State for the time being is chancellor, and the

the principal of one of them, vice-chancellor, either by seniority or by election, as may hereafter be provided for by rule or by law. The chancellor is empowered to call a meeting of the trustees; or a representation of seven of each, and two of the members of the faculty of each, (the principal being one) which meeting is styled, "The Convocation of the University of Maryland," who are to frame the laws, preserve uniformity of manners and literature in the colleges, confer the higher degrees, determine appeals, &c.

The Roman Catholics have also erected a college at Georgetown, on Patomak river, for the promotion of general literature.

In 1785, the Methodists instituted a college at Abingdon, in Harford county, by the name of Cokesbury College, after Thomas Coke, and Francis Ashbury, bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church. The college edifice is of brick, handsomely built, on a healthy spot, enjoying a fine air, and a very extensive prospect.

The students, who are to consist of the sons of travelling preachers, the sons of annual subscribers, the sons of the members of the Methodist society and orphans, are instructed in English, Latin, Greek, Logic, Rhetoric, History, Geography, Natural Philosophy and Astronomy; and when the finances of the college will admit, they are to be taught the Hebrew, French, and German languages.

The college was erected and is supported wholly by subscription and voluntary donations.

The students have regular hours for rising, for prayers, for their meals, for study, and for recreation: they are all to be in bed precisely at nine o'clock. Their recreations, (for they are to be "indulged in nothing which the world calls *play*") are gardening, walking, riding, and bathing, without doors; and within doors, the carpenters, joiners, cabinet-makers, or turner's business. Suitable provision is made for these several occupations, which are to be considered, not as matters of drudgery and constraint, but as pleasing and healthful recreations both for the body and mind. Another of their rules, which, though new and singular, is favourable to the health and vigour of the body and mind, is, that the students shall not sleep on feather beds but on mattresses, and each one by himself. Particular attention is paid to the morals and religion of the students.

There are a few other literary institutions, of inferior note, in different parts of the State, and provision is made for free schools in most of the counties; though some are entirely neglected, and very few carried on with any success; so that a great proportion of the lower class of people are ignorant; and there are not a few who cannot write their names. But the revolution, among other happy effects, has roused the spirit of education, which is fast spreading its salutary influences over this and the other southern States.

NATURAL CURIOSITIES.] There are several remarkable caves in the western part of this State, but particular and accurate descriptions of them have not been received.

EXPENSES OF GOVERNMENT AND TAXES.] The annual expenses of government are estimated at about 20,000l. currency. The revenue arises chiefly from taxes on real and personal property.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislature is composed of two distinct branches, a Senate and House of Delegates, and styled, The General Assembly of Maryland. The senators are elected in the following manner: On the first of September, every fifth year, the freemen choose two men in each county to be electors of the senate, and one elector for the city of Annapolis, and one for the town of Baltimore. These electors must have the qualifications necessary for county delegates: they meet at Annapolis,

polis, or such other place as shall be appointed for convening the legislature, on the third Monday in September, every fifth year, and elect by ballot fifteen senators out of their own body, or from the people at large. Nine of these must be residents on the western shore, and six on the eastern; they must be more than twenty-five years of age: must have resided in the State more than three years next preceding the election, and have real and personal property above the value of a thousand pounds. The senate may originate any bills, except money bills, to which they can only give their assent or dissent. The senate choose their president by ballot. The house of delegates is composed of four members for each county, chosen annually the first Monday in October. The city of Annapolis and town of Baltimore send each two delegates. The qualifications of a delegate are, full age, one year's residence in the county where he is chosen, and real and personal property above the value of five hundred pounds. Both houses choose their own officers, and judge of the election of their members: a majority of each is a quorum. The election of senators and delegates is *viva voce*, and sheriffs the returning officers, except in Baltimore town, where the commissioners superintend the elections and make returns. The stated session of the legislature is on the first Monday in November. The qualifications of a freeman are full age, a freehold estate of fifty acres of land, and actual residence in the county where he offers to vote, property to the value of thirty pounds in any part of the State, and a year's residence in the county where he offers to vote.

On the second Monday in November, annually, a governor is appointed by the joint ballot of both houses, taken in each house respectively, and deposited in a conference room; where the boxes are examined by a joint committee of both houses, and the number of votes severally reported. The governor cannot continue in office longer than three years successively, nor be re-elected until the expiration of four years after he has been out of office. The qualifications for the chief magistracy are, twenty-five years of age, five years residence in the State next preceding the election, and real and personal estate above the value of five thousand pounds, one thousand of which must be freehold estate. On the second Tuesday of November, annually, the senators and delegates elect, by joint ballot, five able and discreet men, above twenty-five years of age, residents in the State three years next preceding the election, and possessing a freehold of lands and tenements above the value of a thousand pounds, to be a council for assisting the governor in the duties of his office. Senators, delegates, and members of council, whilst such, can hold no other office of profit, nor receive the profits of any office exercised by another. The governor, with the advice of his council, appoints the chancellor, all judges and justices, the attorney-general, naval and militia officers, registers of the land office, surveyors, and all other civil officers, except constables, assessors, and overseers of the roads. A court of appeals is established for the final determination of all causes which may be brought from the general court* of admiralty, or of chancery.

This constitution was established by a convention of delegates, at Annapolis, August 14, 1776.

HISTORY.] Maryland was granted by king Charles I. to George Calvert,† baron of Baltimore, in Ireland, June 20, 1632. The government of the province was, by charter,

* In some of the eastern States the legislature is called the General Court. In some of the southern, the General Court is the Supreme Judicial Court.

† George Calvert, lord Baltimore, the founder of Maryland, born in 1582, was educated at Oxford university, was knighted in 1617, by James I. and two years after was appointed one of the principal secretaries of

charter, vested in the proprietary; but it appears, that he either never exercised these powers alone, or but for a short time; for we find, that in 1637 the freemen rejected a body of laws drawn up in England, and transmitted by his lordship, in order to be passed for the government of the province. In the place of these, they proposed forty-two bills to be enacted into laws, by the consent of the proprietary: these were, however, never enacted; at least they are not on record.

The honourable Leonard Calvert, Esq. Lord Baltimore's brother, was the first governor, or lieutenant-general. In 1638 a law was passed, constituting the first regular House of Assembly, which was to consist of such representatives, called Burgesses, as should be elected pursuant to writs issued by the governor. These burgesses possessed *all the powers of the persons electing them*; but any other freemen, who did not assent to the election, might take their seats in person. *Twelve* burgesses or freemen, with the lieutenant-general and secretary, constituted the assembly or legislature. This assembly sat at St. Mary's, one of the southern counties, which was the first settled part of Maryland.

In 1642, it was enacted, that ten members of the assembly, of whom the governor and six burgesses were to be seven, should be a house; and if sickness should prevent that number from attending, the members present should make a house.

In 1644, one Ingle excited a rebellion, forced the governor to fly to Virginia for aid and protection, and seized the records and the great seal; the last of which, with most of the records of the province, were lost or destroyed. From this period, to the year 1647, when order was restored, the proceedings of the province are involved in obscurity.

In July, 1646, the House of Assembly, or more properly the burgesses, requested that they might be separated into two branches—the burgesses by themselves, with a negative upon bills. This was not granted by the lieutenant-general at that time; but in 1650, an act was passed dividing the assembly into two houses: the governor, secretary, and any one or more of the council, formed the *Upper House*; the delegates from the several hundreds, who now represent the freemen, formed the *Lower House*. At this time there were in the province but two counties, St. Mary's and the Isle of

of state, which office he discharged with great industry and fidelity, and was rewarded by the King with a pension of a thousand pounds a year. Having enjoyed this office about five years, he resigned it in 1614, freely owning to his Majesty, that he was become a Roman Catholic. This honest confession so affected the King, that he continued him privy counsellor during his reign, and in 1625, created him (by the name of Sir George Calvert, of Danbywiske in Yorkshire, knight) baron of Baltimore, in the county of Longford, in Ireland. While he was secretary, he obtained a patent of the province of Avalon in Newfoundland, where he built an house, and spent 25,000*l.* in advancing this new plantation; but finding it exposed to the French, was obliged at last to abandon it.

Upon this he came over to Virginia, and having taken a view of the country returned to England, and obtained from Charles I. who was his friend, a patent, to him and his heirs, for Maryland.* He died in London, April 15, 1642. "Though he was a Roman Catholic, yet he kept himself sincere and disengaged from all interests; and was the only statesman that, being engaged to a decried party, managed his business, with that great respect for all sides, that all who knew him applauded him; and none who had any thing to do with him complained of him." He was a man of great abilities and candour. Judge Popham, and Lord Baltimore, though agreed in the public design of foreign plantations, differed in the manner of managing them. The former was for extirpating the original inhabitants, the latter for converting them; the one sent the vicious and profligate, the other the sober and virtuous, to the plantations; one was for present profit, the other for reasonable expectation, wishing to have but few governors, and those not interested merchants, but disinterested gentlemen; granting liberties with great caution, and leaving every one to provide for himself by his own industry, and not out of a common stock.†

* See a copy of this patent in Hazard's Historical Collections, page 327.

† See Carey's Museum, Vol. 6, page 402.

Kent, but Ann Arundel was added the same session. This was during the administration of Governor Stone.

In 1654, during Cromwell's usurpation in England, an act was passed, restraining the exercise of the Roman Catholic religion. This must have been procured by the mere terror of Cromwell's power, for the first and principal inhabitants were Catholics. Indeed the power of Cromwell was not established in Maryland without force and bloodshed. His friends and foes came to an open rupture, an engagement ensued, Governor Stone was taken prisoner, and condemned to be shot: this sentence, however, was not executed, but he was kept a long time in confinement.

In March 1658, Josiah Fendall, Esq. was appointed lieutenant-general of Maryland by commission from Oliver Cromwell: he dissolved the upper house, and surrendered the powers of government into the hands of the delegates.

Upon the restoration in 1660, the honourable Philip Calvert, Esq. was appointed governor; the old form of government was revived; Fendall, and one Gerrard, a counsellor, were indicted, found guilty, and condemned to banishment, with the loss of their estates; but, upon petition, they were pardoned.

In 1689, the government was taken out of the hands of Lord Baltimore by the grand convention of England; and in 1692, Mr. Copley was appointed governor by commission from William and Mary.

In 1692, the Protestant religion was established by law.

In 1699, under the administration of Governor Blackiston, it was enacted, that Annapolis should be the seat of government.

In 1716, the government of this province was restored to the proprietary, and continued in his hands till the late revolution, when, though a minor, his property in the lands was confiscated, and the government assumed by the freemen of the province, who formed the constitution now existing. At the close of the war, Henry Harford, Esq. the natural son and heir of Lord Baltimore, petitioned the legislature of Maryland for his estate, but his petition was not granted. Mr. Harford estimated his loss of quit-rents, valued at twenty-five years purchase, and including arrears, at £.259,488 : 5 : 0, dollars at 7/6—and the value of his manors and reserved lands at £.327,441 of the same money.

LIST of GOVERNORS, with the dates of their appointments.

Hon. Leonard Calvert, Esq. appointed governor,	-	-	1637
Thomas Green, Esq.	-	-	1647
William Stone, Esq.	-	-	1649
The government remained in the hands of the parliament commissioners during the time of Oliver Cromwell's usurpation,	-	-	1654
The commissioners, by certain articles of agreement then entered into, delivered up the government into the hands of Jonah Fendall, Esq. then governor,	-	-	1658
Hon. Phillip Calvert, made governor	-	-	1660
Charles Calvert, Esq.	-	-	1662
Upon the death of Cecilus, the government descended to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who came into the province	-	-	1675
Thomas Notly, Esq. governor	-	-	1678
Who continued till his Lordship returned a second time to the province in	-	-	1681
			King





of)
NORTH CAROLINA,
GEORGIA;
PROVINCES of
FLORIDA:
as ———
between the
NATIONS.
various

VIRGINIA.

475

King William and Queen Mary took upon them the government, and appointed Lyonel Copley, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1692
Francis Nicholson, Esq.	-	-	-	1694
Upon the death of Queen Mary, the government was altogether in the hands of King William III.	-	-	-	1696
Nathaniel Blackiston, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1699
By the death of King William III. Queen Ann took upon her the government—and the same governor was continued	-	-	-	1701-2
Thomas Finch, Esq. president	-	-	-	1703
John Seymour, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1704
Edward Lloyd, Esq. president	-	-	-	1704
John Hart, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1714
Upon the death of Queen Ann, King George I. took upon him the government—and the same governor was continued	-	-	-	1715
The government was restored to Charles, Lord Baltimore, who issued a new commission to John Hart, Esq.	-	-	-	1716
Charles Calvert, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1720
Benedict Leonard Calvert, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1727
The Proprietor came into the province in	-	-	-	1733
And returned to England	-	-	-	1734
Samuel Ogle, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1737
Thomas Bladen, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1742
Samuel Ogle, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1747
By the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the province descended to his son Frederick.—Governor Ogle died the same year	-	-	-	1751
Benjamin Tasker, Esq. president	-	-	-	1751
Horatio Sharp, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1753
Robert Eden, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1769
Frederick, Lord Baron of Baltimore, died	-	-	-	1771
Robert Eden, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1773

Some of the governors since the revolution have been—

Thomas Johnson, Jun.	William Smallwood,
William Paca,	John Eager Howard,
Thomas Sim Lee.	George Plater.

VIRGINIA.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.			Sq. Miles.
Length	446	between { c° and 8° W. Longitude } { 36° 30' and 40° 30' N. Latitude }		70,000
Breadth	224			
BOUNDARIES.] B OUNDED north, by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and Ohio river; west, by Kentucky; south, by North Carolina; and east, by the Atlantic ocean.				

* In the following description of this State the Author has made a free use of Mr. Jefferson's celebrated History of Virginia.—Printed for Mr. Stockdale, London.



EXPLANATION

- The boundary between the United States and Spanish Dominions
- Divisional line between each state
- Lines limiting the territory claimed by each Indian Nation
- Roads
- Rivers
- Indian Towns and Villages

Scale of Miles 69 1/2 to a Degree

A
MAP
(of the STATES of)
VIRGINIA, NORTH CAROLINA,
SOUTH CAROLINA AND GEORGIA;
Comprehending the Spanish PROVINCES of
EAST and WEST FLORIDA:
Exhibiting the Boundaries
as fixed by the late Treaty of Peace between the
UNITED STATES and the SPANISH DOMINIONS.
Compiled from late Surveys & Observations
by
Joseph Purcell.

VIRGINIA.

475

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Thomas Finch, Esq. president	-	-	-	1703
John Seymour, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1704
Edward Lloyd, Esq. president	-	-	-	1704
John Hart, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1714
Upon the death of Queen Ann, King George I. took upon him the government—and the same governor was continued	-	-	-	1715
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Samuel Ogle, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1737
Thomas Bladen, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1742
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By the death of Charles, Lord Baltimore, the province descended to his son Frederick.—Governor Ogle died the same year	-	-	-	1751
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Horatio Sharp, Esq. governor	-	-	-	1753
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Thomas Johnson, Jun.	William Smallwood,
William Paca,	John Eager Howard,
Thomas Sim Lee.	George Plater.

VIRGINIA.*

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 446	} between { c° and 8° W. Longitude } { 36° 30' and 40° 30' N. Latitude }	70,000
Breadth 224		

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Maryland, part of Pennsylvania, and Ohio river; west, by Kentucky; south, by North Carolina; and east, by the Atlantic ocean.

* In the following description of this State the Author has made a free use of Mr. Jefferson's celebrated History of Virginia.—Printed for Mr. Stockdale, London.

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This State is divided into eighty-two counties, and by another division into parishes, which, with the number of inhabitants, according to the census of 1790, are mentioned in the following

TABLE.

	Counties.	Slaves.	Total Inhabitants.
West of the Blue Ridge.	Ohio	281	5212
	Menongalia	154	4768
	Washington	450	5625
	Montgomery	2087	23752
	Wythe		
	Botetourt	319	6015
	Greenbriar		
	Kanawa	454	7346
	Hampshire	2932	19713
	Berkley	4250	19681
	Frederick	512	10510
	Shenandoah	772	7449
	Rockingham	1222	10886
Augusta	682	6548	
Rockbridge	4030	18962	
Between the Blue Ridge and the Tide Waters.	Loudoun	6642	17892
	Fauquier	8226	22105
	Culpepper	5933	11252
	Spotsylvania	4421	9921
	Orange	4573	8467
	Louisa	4656	9053
	Goochland	1466	3921
	Flavania	5579	12585
	Albemarle	5296	13703
	Amherst	4168	9779
	Buckingham	2754	10531
	Bedford	1551	8479
	Henry	2979	11579
	Pittsylvania	5565	14722
	Halifax	4816	10078
	Charlotte	3986	8100
	Prince Edward	4434	8153
	Cumberland	4325	6822
	Powhatan	11307	18097
	Amelia		
	Nottaway	4332	8959
	Lunenburg	6762	14733
	Mecklenburg	6776	12827
	Brunswick		

Between

Between

VIRGINIA.

477

	Counties.		Slaves.		Total Inhabitants.
Between James river and Carolina.	Greenville	-	3620	-	6362
	Dinwiddie	-	7334	-	13934
	Chesterfield	-	7487	-	14214
	Prince George	-	4519	-	8173
	Surry	-	3097	-	6227
	Suffex	-	5387	-	10554
	Southampton	-	5993	-	12864
	Isle of Wight	-	3867	-	9023
	Nansemond	-	3817	-	9010
	Norfolk	-	5345	-	14524
Between James and York rivers.	Princess Anne	-	3202	-	7793
	Henrico	-	5819	-	12000
	Hanover	-	8223	-	14754
	New Kent	-	3700	-	6239
	Charles City	-	3141	-	5518
	James City	-	2405	-	4070
	Williamsburg	-	2760	-	5233
	York	-	990	-	1690
	Warwick	-	1876	-	3450
Between York and Rappahannoc rivers.	Elizabeth City	-	10292	-	17489
	Caroline	-	5151	-	8128
	King William	-	5143	-	9377
	King and Queen	-	5440	-	9122
	Essex	-	2558	-	4140
	Middlesex	-	7063	-	13498
Betw. Rappahannoc and Patomak rivers.	Gloucester	-	4574	-	12320
	Fairfax	-	4704	-	11615
	Prince William	-	4036	-	9588
	Stafford	-	4157	-	7366
	King George	-	3984	-	6985
	Richmond	-	4425	-	7722
	Westmoreland	-	4460	-	9163
	Northumberland	-	3236	-	5638
East shore	Lancaster	-	4262	-	13959
	Accomac	-	3244	-	6889

The following are new counties :

Counties.		Slaves.		Total Inhabitants.
Campbell	-	2488	-	7685
Franklin	-	1073	-	6842
Harrison	-	67	-	2080
Randolph	-	19	-	951
Hardy	-	369	-	7336
Pendleton	-	73	-	2452
Russell	-	190	-	3338

Total amount 292,627 454,983

The whole number of Inhabitants - 747,610

Kentucky,

Kentucky, which till lately belonged to this State, contains 73,677 inhabitants, which added to 747,610, makes 821,287.

In the year 1781, a very inaccurate census was taken, several counties made no return: but supplying by conjecture the deficiencies, the population of Virginia was then computed at 567,614; the increase then is 258,673; and is as 9 to 13 in ten years.

The increase of slaves, during those ten years, has been less than it had been observed for a century before. The reason is, that about 30,000 slaves perished with the small-pox or camp fever, caught from the British army, or went off with them while Lord Cornwallis was roving over that State.

CLIMATE.] In an extensive country, it will be expected that the climate is not the same in all its parts. It is remarkable that, proceeding on the same parallel of latitude westerly, the climate becomes colder in like manner as when you proceed northwardly. This continues to be the case till you attain the summit of the Allegany, which is the highest land between the ocean and the Mississippi. From thence, descending in the same latitude to the Mississippi, the change reverses; and, if we may believe travellers, it becomes warmer there than it is in the same latitude on the sea side. Their testimony is strengthened by the vegetables and animals which subsist and multiply there naturally, and do not on the sea-coast. Thus catalpas grow spontaneously on the Mississippi, as far as the latitude of 37° , and reeds as far as 38° . Parroquets even winter on the Scioto, in the 39^{th} degree of latitude.

The south-west winds, east of the mountains, are most predominant. Next to these, on the sea-coast, the north-east, and at the mountains, the north-west winds prevail. The difference between these winds is very great. The north-east is loaded with vapour, inasmuch that the salt manufacturers have found that their crystals would not shoot while that blows; it occasions a distressing chill, and a heaviness and depression of the spirits. The north-west is dry, cooling, classic, and animating. The east and south-east breezes come on generally in the afternoon. They have advanced into the country very sensibly within the memory of people now living. Mr. Jefferson reckons the extremes of heat and cold to be 98° above, and 6° below 0, in Fahrenheit's thermometer.

That fluctuation between heat and cold, so destructive to fruit, prevails less in Virginia than in Pennsylvania, in the spring season; nor is the overflowing of the rivers in Virginia so extensive or so frequent at that season, as those of the New England States; because the snows in the former do not lie accumulating all winter, to be dissolved all at once in the spring, as they do sometimes in the latter. In Virginia, below the mountains, snow seldom lies more than a day or two, and seldom a week; and the large rivers seldom freeze over. This fluctuation of weather, however, is sufficient to render the winters and springs very unwholesome, as the inhabitants have to walk in almost perpetual slop.

The months of June and July, though often the hottest, are the most healthy in the year. The weather is then dry and less liable to change than in August and September, when the rain commences, and sudden variations take place.

On the sea coast, the land is low, generally within twelve feet of the level of the sea, intersected in all directions with salt creeks and rivers, the heads of which form swamps and marshes, and fenny ground, covered with water in wet seasons. The uncultivated lands are covered with large trees and thick underwood. The vicinity of the sea, and salt creeks and rivers, occasion a constant moisture and warmth of the atmosphere, so that although under the same latitude, 100 or 150 miles in the country, deep snows, and frozen rivers frequently happen, for a short season, yet here such occurrences

currences are considered as phenomena; for these reasons, the trees are often in bloom as early as the last of February; from this period, however, till the end of April, the inhabitants are incommoded by cold rains, piercing winds, and sharp frosts, which subjects them to the inflammatory diseases, known here under the names of pleurisy and peripneumony.

RIVERS AND CANALS.] An inspection of the map of Virginia will give a better idea of the geography of its rivers, than any description in writing. Their navigation may be imperfectly noted.

Roanoke, so far as it lies within this State, is no where navigable, but for canoes, or light batteaux; and even for these, in such detached parcels as to have prevented the inhabitants from availing themselves of it at all.

James River, and its waters, afford navigation as follows: The whole of *Elizabeth river*, the lowest of those which run into *James river*, is a harbour, and would contain upwards of 300 ships. The channel is from 150 to 200 fathoms wide, and at common flood tide, affords eighteen feet water to Norfolk. The *Strafford*, a sixty-gun ship, went there, lightening herself to cross the bar at Sowell's Point. The *Fier Rodrigue*, pierced for sixty-four guns, and carrying fifty, went there without lightening. *Craney island*, at the mouth of this river, commands its channel tolerably well.

Nansemond River is navigable to Sleepy Hole, for vessels of 250 tons; to Suffolk, for those of 100 tons; and to Milner's, for those of twenty-five. *Pagan Creek* affords eight or ten feet water to Smithfield, which admits vessels of twenty tons. *Chickahominy* has at its mouth a bar, on which is only twelve feet water at common flood tide. Vessels passing that, may go eight miles up the river; those of ten feet draught may go four miles farther, and those of six tons burthen twenty miles farther.

Appamattox may be navigated as far as Broadways, by any vessel which has crossed Harrison's bar in *James river*; it keeps eight or nine feet water a mile or two higher up to Fisher's bar, and four feet on that and upwards to Petersburg, where all navigation ceases.

James River itself affords harbour for vessels of any size in Hampton Road, but not in safety through the whole winter; and there is navigable water for them as far as Mulberry island. A forty-gun ship goes to Jamestown, and, lightening herself, may pass to Harrison's bar, on which there is only fifteen feet water. Vessels of 250 tons may go to Warwick; those of 125 go to Rocket's, a mile below Richmond; from thence is about seven feet water to Richmond; and about the center of the town, four feet and a half, where the navigation is interrupted by falls, which in a course of six miles descend about 80 feet perpendicular: above these it is resumed in canoes and batteaux, and is prosecuted safely and advantageously to within ten miles of the Blue Ridge; and even through the Blue Ridge a ton weight has been brought; and the expense would not be great, when compared with its object, to open a tolerable navigation up Jackson's river and Carpenter's creek, to within twenty-five miles of Howard's creek of Green Briar, both of which have then water enough to float vessels into the Great Kanaway. In some future state of population, it is possible that its navigation may also be made to interlock with that of Patomak, and through that to communicate by a short portage with the Ohio. It is to be noted, that this river is called in the maps *James river*, only to its confluence with the *Rivanna*; thence to the Blue Ridge it is called the *Fluvanna*; and thence to its source, Jackson's river. But in common speech it is called *James river* to its source.

The *Rivanna*, a branch of *James river*, is navigable for canoes and batteaux to its intersection with the south-west mountains, which is about twenty-two miles; and may

may easily be opened to navigation through these mountains, to its fork above Charlottesville.

York River, at Yorktown, affords the best harbour in the State for vessels of the largest size. The river there narrows to the width of a mile, and is contained within very high banks, close under which the vessels may ride. It holds four fathom water at high-tide for twenty-five miles above York to the mouth of Poropotank, where the river is a mile and a half wide, and the channel only seventy-five fathom, and passing under a high bank. At the confluence of Pamunkey and Mattapony, it is reduced to three fathom depth, which continues up Pamunkey to Cumberland, where the width is 100 yards, and up Mattapony to within two miles of Frazier's ferry, where it becomes two and a half fathom deep, and holds that about five miles. Pamunkey is then capable of navigation for loaded flats to Brockman's bridge, fifty miles above Hanover town, and Mattapony to Downer's bridge, seventy miles above its mouth.

Piankatank, the little rivers making out of Mobjack Bay and those of the Eastern shore, receive only very small vessels, and these can but enter them. *Rappahannock* affords four fathom water to Hobb's Hole, and two fathoms from thence to Fredericksburg, 110 miles.

Patomak is seven and a half miles wide at the mouth; four and a half at Nomony Bay; three at Aquia; one and a half at Hallooing Point; one and a quarter at Alexandria. Its soundings are seven fathom at the mouth; five at St. George's Island; four and a half at Lower Matchodie; three at Swan's Point, and thence up to Alexandria; thence ten feet water to the falls, which are thirteen miles above Alexandria. The tides in the Patomak are not very strong, excepting after great rains, when the ebb is pretty strong; then there is little or no flood; and there is never more than four or five hours flood, except with long and strong south winds.

The distance from the Capes of Virginia to the termination of the tide water in this river is above 300 miles; and navigable for ships the greatest burthen, nearly that distance. From thence this river, obstructed by four considerable falls, extends through a vast tract of inhabited country towards its source. These falls are, 1st, The *Little Falls*, three miles above tide water, in which distance there is a fall of thirty-six feet: 2d, The *Great Falls*, six miles higher, where is a fall of seventy-six feet in one mile and a quarter; 3d, The *Seneca Falls*, six miles above the former, which form short, irregular rapids, with a fall of about ten feet; and 4th, The *Sheuandoah Falls*, sixty miles from the *Seneca*, where is a fall of about thirty feet in three miles: from which last, *Fort Cumberland* is about 120 miles distant. The obstructions which are opposed to the navigation above and between these falls are of little consequence.

Early in the year 1785, the legislatures of Virginia and Maryland passed acts to encourage opening the navigation of this river. It was estimated that the expense of the works would amount to 50,000*l.* sterling, and ten years were allowed for their completion. The president and directors of the incorporated company have since supposed that 45,000*l.* would be adequate to the operation, and that it will be accomplished in a shorter period than was stipulated. Their calculations are founded on the progress already made, and the summary mode established for enforcing the collection of the dividends, as the money may become necessary.

According to the opinion of the president and directors, *locks** will be necessary at no more than two places, the *Great* and the *Little Falls*; six at the former, and three at

* A lock is a basin placed lengthwise in a river or canal, lined with walls of masonry on each side, and terminated by two gates, placed where there is a cascade or natural fall of the country; and so constructed, that

at the latter. At the latter nothing had been attempted in 1789. At the *Great Falls*, where the difficulties were judged by many to be insurmountable, the work is nearly or quite completed. At the *Seneca Falls* the laborious part of the business is entirely accomplished, by removing the obstacles and making the descent more gradual; so that nothing remained in 1789 but to finish the channel for this gentle current in a workmanlike manner. At the *Shenandoah*, where the river breaks through the Blue ridge, though a prodigious quantity of labour has been bestowed, yet the passage is not yet perfected. Such proficiency has been made, however, that an avenue for a partial navigation has been opened from *Fort Cumberland* to the *Great Falls*, which are within nine miles of a shipping port.*

As soon as the proprietors shall begin to receive toll, they will doubtless find an ample compensation for their pecuniary advances. By an estimate made many years ago, it was calculated that the amount, in the commencement, would be at the rate of 11,875l. Virginia currency, per annum. The toll must every year become more productive; as the quantity of articles for exportation will be augmented in a rapid ratio, with the increase of population and the extension of settlements. In the mean time the effect will be immediately seen in the agriculture of the interior country; for the multitude of horses now employed in carrying produce to market, will then be used altogether for the purposes of tillage. But, in order to form just conceptions of the utility of this inland navigation, it would be requisite to notice the long rivers which empty into the Patomak, and even to take a survey of the geographical position of the *western waters*.

The *Shenandoah*, which empties just above the Blue mountains, may, according to report, be made navigable, at a trifling expence, more than 150 miles from its confluence with the Patomak; and will receive and bear the produce of the richest part of the State. Commissioners have been appointed to form a plan, and to estimate the expence of opening the channel of this river, if on examination it should be found practicable. The South Branch, still higher, is navigable in its actual condition nearly or quite 100 miles, through exceedingly fertile lands. Between these on the Virginia side are several smaller rivers, that may with ease be improved, so as to afford a passage for boats. On the Maryland side are the Monocacy, Antietam, and Conegocheague, some of which pass through the State of Maryland, and have their sources in Pennsylvania.

From Fort Cumberland, (or Wills' Creek) one or two good waggon roads may be had (where the distance is said by some to be thirty-five and by others forty miles) to the Youghiogany, a large and navigable branch of the Monongahela, which last forms a junction with the Allegany at Fort Pitt.

that the basin being filled with water by an upper sluice, to the level of the waters above, a vessel may ascend through the upper gate; or the water in the lock being reduced to the level of the water at the bottom of the cascade, the vessel may ascend through the lower gate; for when the waters are brought to a level on either side, the gate on that side may be easily opened. But as the lower gate is strained in proportion to the depth of water it supports, when the perpendicular height of the water exceeds twelve or thirteen feet, more locks than one become necessary. Thus, if the fall be seventeen feet, two locks are required, each having eight feet fall; and if the fall be twenty-six feet, three locks are necessary, each having eight feet eight inches fall. The side walls of the locks ought to be very strong. Where the natural foundation is bad, they should be founded on piles, and platforms of wood: they should likewise slope outwards, in order to resist the pressure of the earth behind.

* The author has been disappointed in receiving an account of the present state of the Virginia canals and improvements.

But, by passing farther up the Patomak than Fort Cumberland, which may very easily be done, a portage by a good waggon road to Cheat river, another large branch of the Monongahela, can be obtained through a space which some say is twenty, others twenty-two, others twenty five, and none more than thirty miles.

When we have arrived at either of these western waters, the navigation through that immense region is opened by a thousand directions, and to the lakes in several places by portages of less than ten miles; and by one portage, it is asserted, of not more than a single mile.

Notwithstanding it was sincerely said by some foreigners, at the beginning of this undertaking, that the Americans are fond of engaging in splendid projects which they could never accomplish; yet it is hoped the success of this first essay towards improving their inland navigation, will, in some degree, rescue them from the reproach intended to have been fixed upon their national character, by the unmerited imputation.

The *Great Kanawha* is a river of considerable note for the fertility of its land, and still more, as leading towards the head waters of James river. Nevertheless, it is doubtful whether its great and numerous rapids will admit a navigation, but at an expence to which it will require ages to render its inhabitants equal. The great obstacles begin at what are called the Great Falls, ninety miles above the mouth, below which are only five or six rapids, and these passable, with some difficulty, even at low water. From the falls to the mouth of Green Briar is 100 miles, and thence to the lead mines 120. It is 280 yards wide at its mouth.

The *Little Kanawha* is 150 yards wide at the mouth. It yields a navigation of ten miles only. Perhaps its northern branch, called Junius' Creek, which interlocks with the western waters of Monongahela, may one day admit a shorter passage from the latter into the Ohio.

MOUNTAINS.] It is worthy notice, that the mountains are not solitary and scattered confusedly over the face of the country; but commence at about 150 miles from the sea coast, are disposed in ridges one behind another, running nearly parallel with the sea coast, though rather approaching it as they advance north-eastwardly. To the south-west, as the tract of country between the sea coast and the Mississippi becomes narrower, the mountains converge into a single ridge, which, as it approaches the Gulph of Mexico, subsides into plain country, and gives rise to some of the waters of that gulph, and particularly to a river called Apalachicola, probably from the Apalachies, an Indian nation formerly residing on it. Hence the mountains giving rise to that river, and teen from its various parts, were called the Apalachian Mountains, being in fact the end or termination only of the great ridges passing through the Continent. European geographers, however, extended the same northwardly as far as the mountains extended; some giving it after their separation into different ridges, to the Blue Ridge, others to the North Mountains, others to the Allegany, others to the Laurel Ridge, as may be seen in their different maps. But none of these ridges were ever known by that name to the inhabitants, either native or emigrant, but as they saw them so called in European maps. In the same direction generally are the veins of lime-stone, coal, and other minerals hitherto discovered; and so range the falls of the great rivers. But the courses of the great rivers are at right angles with these. James and Patomak penetrate through all the ridges of mountains eastward of the Allegany, that is broken by no watercourse. It is in fact the spine of the country between the Atlantic on one side, and the Mississippi and St. Lawrence on the other. The passage
of

the Patomak through the Blue ridge is perhaps one of the most stupendous scenes in nature. You stand on a very high point of land. On your right comes up the Shenandoah, having ranged along the foot of the mountain an hundred miles to seek a vent; on your left approaches the Patomak, in quest of a passage also: in the moment of their junction they rush together against the mountain, rend it asunder, and pass off to the sea. The first glance of this scene hurries our senses into the opinion, that this earth has been created in time, that the mountains were formed first, that the rivers began to flow afterwards; that in this place particularly they have been dammed up by the Blue ridge of mountains, and have formed an ocean which filled the whole valley; that continuing to rise they have at length broken over at this spot, and have torn the mountain down from its summit to its base. The piles of rock on each hand, but particularly on the Shenandoah, the evident marks of their disruption and avulsion from their beds by the most powerful agents of nature, corroborate the impression: but the distant finishing which nature has given to the picture, is of a very different character. It is a true contrast to the fore ground; it is as placid and delightful, as that is wild and tremendous. For the mountain, being cloven asunder, presents to the eye, through the cleft, a small catch of smooth blue horizon, at an infinite distance, in the plain country, inviting you, as it were, from the riot and tumult roaring around, to pass through the breach and participate of the calm below. Here the eye ultimately composes itself; and that way too, the road actually leads. You cross the Patomak above the junction, pass along its side through the base of the mountain for three miles, its terrible precipices hanging in fragments over you, and within about twenty miles reach of Fredericktown and the fine country round that. This scene is worth a voyage across the Atlantic. Yet here, as in the neighbourhood of the Natural Bridge, are people who have passed their lives within half a dozen miles, and have never been to survey these monuments of a war between rivers and mountains, which must have shaken the earth itself to its center. The height of the mountains has not yet been estimated with any degree of exactness. The Allegany being the great ridge which divides the waters of the Atlantic from those of the Mississippi, its summit is doubtless more elevated above the ocean than that of any other mountain. But its relative height, compared with the base on which it stands, is not so great as that of some others, the country rising behind the successive ridges like the steps of stairs. The mountains of the Blue ridge, and of these the peaks of Otter are thought to be of a greater height measured from their base than any others in Virginia, and perhaps in North America. From data, which may be found a tolerable conjecture, we suppose the highest peak to be about 4000 feet perpendicular, which is not a fifth part of the height of the mountains of South America, nor one third of the height which would be necessary in our latitude to preserve ice in the open air unmelted through the year. The ridge of mountains next beyond the Blue ridge, called the North Mountain, is of the greatest extent; for which reason they are named by the Indians the Endless Mountains.

The Ouasito mountains are fifty or sixty miles wide at the Gap: These mountains abound in coal, lime, and free-stone; the summits of them are generally covered with a good soil, and a variety of timber; and the low, intervale lands are rich and remarkably well watered.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] The whole country below the mountains, which are about 150, some say 200 miles from the sea, is level, and seems from various appearances to have been once washed by the sea. The land between York and James rivers is very level, and its surface about forty feet above high water

mark. It appears, from observation, to have arisen to its present height, at different periods far distant from each other, and that at these periods it was washed by the sea; for near Yorktown, where the banks are perpendicular, you first see a *stratum*, intermixed with small shells resembling a mixture of clay and sand, and about five feet thick; on this lies horizontally, small white shells, cockle, clam, &c. an inch or two thick; then a body of earth similar to that first mentioned, eighteen inches thick; then a layer of shells and another body of earth; on this a layer of three feet of white shells mixed with sand, on which lay a body of oyster shells six feet thick, which were covered with earth to the surface. The oyster shells are so united by a very strong cement that they fall, only when undermined, and then in large bodies, from one to twenty tons weight. They have the appearance of large rocks on the shore.*

These appearances continue in a greater or less degree in the banks of James river, one hundred miles from the sea; the appearances then vary, and the banks are filled with sharks' teeth, bones of large and small fish petrified, and many other petrifications, some resembling the bones of land and other animals, other vegetable substances. These appearances are not confined to the river banks, but are seen in various places in gullies at considerable distances from the rivers. In one part of the State for seventy miles in length, by sinking a well, you apparently come to the bottom of what was formerly a watercourse. And even as high up as Botetourt county, among the Alleghany mountains, there is a tract of land, judged to be 40,000 acres, surrounded on every side by mountains, which is entirely covered with oyster and cockle shells, and, from some gullies, they appear to be of considerable depth. A plantation at Day's Point, on James river, of as many as 1000 acres, appears at a distance as if covered with snow, but on examination the white appearance is found to arise from a bed of clam shells, which by repeated plowing have become fine and mixed with earth.

The soil below the mountains seems to have acquired a character for goodness which it by no means deserves. Though not rich it is well suited to the growth of tobacco and Indian corn, and parts of it, for wheat. Good crops of cotton, flax, and hemp are also raised; and in some counties they have plenty of cyder, and exquisite brandy, distilled from peaches, which grow in great abundance upon the numerous rivers of the Chesapeake.

The planters, before the war, paid their principal attention to the culture of tobacco, of which there used to be exported, generally, 55,000 hogsheds a year. Since the revolution they are turning their attention more to the cultivation of wheat, Indian corn, barley, flax, and hemp. It is expected that this State will add the article of rice to the list of her exports; as it is supposed a large body of swamp, in the easternmost counties, is capable of producing it.

Horned or neat cattle are bred in great numbers in the western counties of Virginia, as well as in the States south of it, where they have an extensive range, and mild winters, without any permanent snows.—They run at large, are not housed, and multiply very fast.—“In the lower parts of the State a disease prevails among the neat cattle which proves fatal to all that are not bred there. The oxen, from the more Northern States, which were employed at the siege of Yorktown, in October 1781, almost all died, sometimes forty of them in a night, and often suddenly dropped down dead in the roads. It is said that the seeds of this disease were brought from the Havannah to South Carolina or Georgia in some hides, and that the disease has progressed northward to Virginia. Lord Dunmore imported some cattle from Rhode Island, and kept them confined in a small pasture, near his seat, where no cattle had been for
some

* General Lincoln.

Some years, and where they could not intermix with other cattle, and yet they soon died.*

The gentlemen, being fond of pleasure, have taken much pains to raise a good breed of horses, and have succeeded in it beyond any of the States. They will give 1000l. sterling for a good seed horse. Horse-racing has had a great tendency to encourage the breeding of good horses, as it affords an opportunity of putting them to the trial of their speed. They are more elegant, and will perform more service, than the horses of the northern States.

An intelligent gentleman, an inhabitant of Virginia, informs, that caves among the mountains have lately been discovered, which yield salt petre in such abundance, that he judges 500,000 pounds of it might be collected from them annually.

This State does not abound with good fish. Sturgeon, shad, and herring are the most plenty; perch, sheepshead, drum, rock fish, and trout are common; besides these they have oysters in abundance, crabs, shrimps, &c.

[CASCADÉS, CURIOSITIES, AND CAVERNS.] The only remarkable cascade in this State is that of Falling Spring, in Augusta. It is a water of James river, where it is called Jackson's river, rising in the warm spring mountains about twenty miles south-west of the warm spring, and flowing into that valley. About three quarters of a mile from its source, it falls over a rock two hundred feet into the valley below. The sheet of water is broken in its breadth by the rock in two or three places, but not at all in its height. Between the sheet and rock, at the bottom, you may walk across dry. This cataract will bear no comparison with that of Niagara, as to the quantity of water composing it; the sheet being only twelve or fifteen feet wide above, and somewhat more spread below; but it is half as high again.

In the lime-stone country, there are many caverns of very considerable extent. The most noted is called Madison's cave, and is on the north side of the Blue ridge, near the intersection of the Rockingham and Augusta line with the south fork of the southern river of Shenandoah. It is in a hill of about two hundred feet perpendicular height, the ascent of which, on one side, is so steep that you may pitch a biscuit from its summit into the river which washes its base. The entrance of the cave is, in this side, about two thirds of the way up. It extends into the earth about three hundred feet, branching into subordinate caverns, sometimes ascending a little, but more generally descending, and at length terminates in two different places, at basins of water of unknown extent, and which appear to be nearly on a level with the water of the river. It is probably one of the many reservoirs with which the interior parts of the earth are supposed to abound, and which yield supplies to the fountains of water, distinguished from others only by its being accessible. The vault of this cave is of solid lime-stone, from twenty to forty or fifty feet high, through which water is continually exuding. This, trickling down the sides of the cave, has incrustated them over in the form of elegant drapery; and dripping from the top of the vault, generates on that, and on the base below, stalactites of a conical form, some of which have met and formed massive columns.

Another of these caves is near the North Mountain, in the county of Frederick. The entrance into this is on the top of an extensive ridge. You descend thirty or forty feet, as into a well, from whence the cave then extends, nearly horizontally, four hundred feet into the earth, preserving a breadth of from twenty to fifty feet, and a height of from five to twelve feet. After entering this cave a few feet, the mercury, which in the open air was at 50°, rose to 57° of Fahrenheit's thermometer.

At

At the Panther gap, in the ridge which divides the waters of the Cow and the Calf pasture, is what is called the Blowing Cave. It is in the side of a hill, is of about one hundred feet diameter, and emits constantly a current of air of such force, as to keep the weeds prostrate to the distance of twenty yards before it. This current is strongest in dry frosty weather, and in long spells of rain weakest. Regular inspirations and expirations of air, by caverns and fissures, have been probably enough accounted for, by supposing them combined with intermitting fountains, as they must of course inhale the air while the reservoirs are emptying themselves, and again emit it while they are filling. But a constant issue of air, only varying in its force as the weather is drier or damper, will require a new hypothesis. There is another blowing cave in the Cumberland mountain, about a mile from where it crosses the Carolina line. All we know of this is, that it is not constant, and that a fountain of water issues from it.

The Natural Bridge is the most sublime of nature's works. It is on the ascent of a hill, which seems to have been cloven through its length by some great convulsion. The fissure, just at the bridge, is by some admeasurements, two hundred and seventy feet deep, by others only two hundred and five. It is about forty-five feet wide at the bottom, and ninety feet at the top; this of course determines the length of the bridge, and its height from the water. Its breadth in the middle is about sixty feet, but more at the ends, and the thickness of the mass at the summit of the arch about forty feet. A part of this thickness is constituted by a coat of earth, which gives growth to many large trees. The residue, with the hill on both sides, is solid rock of lime-stone. The arch approaches the semi-elliptical form; but the larger axis of the ellipsis, which would be the cord of the arch, is many times longer than the transverse. Though the sides of this bridge are provided in some parts with a parapet of fixed rocks, yet few men have resolution to walk to them and look over into the abyss. You involuntarily fall on your hands and feet, creep to the parapet and peep over it. If the view from the top be painful and intolerable, that from below is delightful in an equal extreme. It is impossible for the emotions arising from the sublime, to be felt beyond what they are here: so beautiful an arch, so elevated, so light, and springing as it were up to Heaven, the rapture of the spectator is really indescribable! The fissure continuing narrow, deep, and straight, for a considerable distance above and below the bridge, opens a short but very pleasing view of the North mountain on one side, and Blue Ridge on the other, at the distance each of them of about five miles. This bridge is in the county of Rockbridge, to which it has given name, and affords a public and commodious passage over a valley, which cannot be crossed elsewhere for a considerable distance. The stream passing under it is called Cedar Creek. It is a water of James river, and sufficient in the driest seasons to turn a grist mill, though its fountain is not more than two miles above.* There is a natural bridge similar to the above over Stock Creek, a branch of Pelecion river, in Washington county.

MINES AND MINERALS.] Virginia is the most pregnant with minerals and fossils of any State in the Union. A single lump of gold ore has been found, near the falls of Rappahannock river, which yielded 17 dwt. of gold, of extraordinary ductility. No other indication of gold has been discovered in its neighbourhood.

On the great Kanhawa, opposite to the mouth of Cripple Creek, and also about twenty-five miles from the southern boundary of the State, in the county of Montgo-

* Don Ulloa mentions a break, similar to this, in the province of Angaraez, in South America. It is from sixteen to twenty-two feet wide, one hundred and eleven deep, and of one mile and three quarters continuance, English measure. Its breadth at top is not sensibly greater than at bottom.

tery, are mines of lead." The metal is mixed, sometimes with earth, and sometimes with rock, which requires the force of gunpowder to open it; and is accompanied with a portion of silver, too small to be worth separation under any process hitherto attempted there. The proportion yielded is from 50 to 80 lb. of pure metal from 100 lb. of washed ore. The most common is that of 60 to the 100 lb. The veins are at sometimes most flattering; at others they disappear suddenly and totally. They enter the side of the hill, and proceed horizontally. Two of them have been wrought by the public. These would employ about fifty labourers to advantage. Thirty men, who have at the same time raised their own corn, have produced sixty tons of lead in the year; but the general quantity is from twenty to twenty-five tons. The present furnace is a mile from the ore bank, and on the opposite side of the river. The ore is first waggoned to the river, a quarter of a mile, then laden on board of canoes and carried across the river, which is there about two hundred yards wide, and then again taken into waggons and carried to the furnace. This mode was originally adopted, that they might avail themselves of a good situation on a creek, for a pounding mill; but it would be easy to have the furnace and pounding mill on the same side of the river, which would yield water, without any dam, by a canal of about half a mile in length. From the furnace the lead is transported one hundred and thirty miles along a good road, leading through the peaks of Otter to Lynch's ferry, or Winslow's, on James river, from whence it is carried by water about the same distance to Westham. This land carriage may be greatly shortened, by delivering the lead on James river, above the Blue Ridge, from whence a ton weight has been brought in two canoes. The Great Kanhawa has considerable falls in the neighbourhood of the mines. About seven miles below are three falls, of three or four feet perpendicular each: and three miles above is a rapid of three miles continuance, which has been compared in its descent to the great fall of James river; yet it is the opinion, that they may be laid open for useful navigation, so as to reduce very much the portage between the Kanhawa and James river.

A mine of copper was opened in the county of Amherst, on the north side of James river, and another in the opposite county, on the south side. However, either from bad management or the poverty of the veins, they were discontinued. A few years ago there were six iron mines worked in this State. Two of them made about one hundred and fifty tons bar iron each; the others made each from six hundred to one thousand six hundred tons of pig iron annually. Besides these, a forge at Fredericksburgh, made about three hundred tons a year of bar iron, from pigs imported from Maryland; and a forge on Neapco of Patomak, worked in the same way. The indications of iron in other places are numerous, and dispersed through all the middle country. The toughness of the cast iron of some of the furnaces is very remarkable. Pots and other utensils, cast thinner than usual, of this iron, may be safely thrown into or out of the waggons in which they are transported. Salt pans made of the same, and no longer wanted for that purpose, cannot be broken up in order to be melted again, unless previously drilled in many parts.

In the western part of the State we are told of iron mines on Chestnut Creek, a branch of the Great Kanhawa, near where it crosses the Carolina line; and in other places.

Considerable quantities of black lead are taken occasionally for use from Winterham, in the county of Amelia. There is no work established at it, those who want, going and procuring it for themselves.

The country on both sides of James river, from fifteen to twenty miles above Richmond, and for several miles northward and southward, is replete with mineral coal
of

of a very excellent quality. Being in the hands of many proprietors, pits have been opened, and worked to an extent equal to the demand. The pits which have been opened lie 150 or 200 feet above the bed of the river, and have been very little incommoded with water. The first discovery of the coal is said to have been made by a boy, digging after a cray-fish; it has also been found on the bottom of trees blown up. In many places it lies within three or four feet of the surface of the ground. It is conjectured that 500,000 bushels might be raised from one pit in 12 months.

In the western country, coal is known to be in so many places, as to have induced an opinion, that the whole tract between the Laurel Mountain, Mississippi, and Ohio, yields coal. It is also known in many places on the north side of the Ohio. The coal at Pittsburgh is of a very superior quality: a bed of it at that place has been on fire since the year 1765. Another coal hill on the Pike Run of Monongahela has been on fire ten years; yet it has burnt away about 20 yards only.

I have known one instance, says Mr. Jefferson, of an emerald found in this country. Amethysts have been frequent, and chryssals common; yet not in such numbers any of them as to be worth seeking.

There is very good marble, and in very great abundance, on James river, at the mouth of Rockfish: some white and as pure as one might expect to find on the surface of the earth; but generally variegated with red, blue, and purple. None of it has ever been worked: it forms a very large precipice, which hangs over a navigable part of the river.

But one vein of lime-stone is known below the Blue Ridge: its first appearance is in Prince William, two miles below the Pignut ridge of mountains; thence it passes on nearly parallel with that, and crosses the Rivanna about five miles below it, where it is called the South-west Ridge: it then crosses Hardware, above the mouth of Hudson's creek, James river, at the mouth of Rockfish, at the marble quarry before spoken of, probably runs up that river to where it appears again at Ross's iron works, and so passes off south-westwardly by Flat creek of Otter river: it is never more than 100 yards wide. From the Blue ridge westwardly the whole country seems to be founded on a rock of lime-stone, besides infinite quantities on the surface, both loose and fixed: this is cut into beds, which range, as the mountains and sea coast do, from south-west to north-east.

MEDICINAL SPRINGS.] There are several medicinal springs, some of which are indubitably efficacious, while others seem to owe their reputation as much to fancy, and change of air and regimen, as to their real virtues. None of them have undergone a chemical analysis in skilful hands, nor been so far the subject of observations as to have produced a reduction into classes of the disorders which they relieve; it is in my power to give little more than an enumeration of them.

The most efficacious of these are two springs in Augusta, near the sources of James river, where it is called Jackson's river. They rise near the foot of the ridge of mountains, generally called the Warm spring mountain, but in the maps Jackson's mountains. The one is distinguished by the name of the Warm Spring, and the other of the Hot Spring. The warm spring issues with a very bold stream, sufficient to work a grist mill, and to keep the waters of its basin, which is 30 feet in diameter, at the vital warmth, viz. 96° of Fahrenheit's thermometer. The matter with which these waters is allied is very volatile; its smell indicates it to be sulphureous, as also does the circumstance of turning silver black: they relieve rheumatisms: other complaints also of very different natures have been removed or lessened by them. It rains here four or five days in every week.

The hot spring is about six miles from the warm, is much smaller, and has been so hot as to have boiled an egg. Some believe its degree of heat to be lessened: it raises the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to 112 degrees, which is fever heat: it sometimes relieves where the warm spring fails. A fountain of common water, issuing within a few inches of its margin, gives it a singular appearance. Comparing the temperature of these with that of the hot springs of Kamtschatka, of which Krachinnikow gives an account, the difference is very great, the latter rising the mercury to 200 degrees, which is within 12 degrees of boiling water. These springs are very much resorted to, in spite of a total want of accommodation for the sick. Their waters are strongest in the hottest months, which occasions their being visited in July and August principally.

The sweet springs are in the county of Botetourt, at the eastern foot of the Allegany, about 42 miles from the warm springs. They are still less known. Having been found to relieve cases in which the others had been ineffectually tried, it is probable their composition is different: they are different also in their temperature, being as cold as common water; which is not mentioned, however, as a proof of a distinct impregnation. This is among the first sources of James river.

On Patomak river, in Berkeley county, above the North Mountain, are medicinal springs, much more frequented than those of Augusta: their powers, however, are less, the waters weakly mineralized, and scarcely warm. They are more visited, because situated in a fertile, plentiful, and populous country, provided with better accommodations, always safe from the Indians, and nearest to the more populous States.

In Louisa county, on the head waters of the South Anna branch of York river, are springs of some medicinal virtue; they are, however, not much used. There is a weak chalybeate at Richmond, and many others in various parts of the country, which are of too little worth, or too little note to be enumerated after those before mentioned.

We are told of a sulphur spring on Howard's creek of green briar. In the low grounds of the Great Kanhawa, seven miles above the mouth of Elk river, and 67 above that of the Kanhawa itself, is a hole in the earth of the capacity of 30 or 40 gallons, from which issues constantly a bituminous vapour, in so strong a current, as to give to the sand about its orifice the motion which it has in a boiling spring. On presenting a lighted candle or torch within 18 inches of the hole, it flames up in a column of 18 inches diameter, and four or five feet in height, which sometimes burns out in 20 minutes, and at other times has been known to continue three days, and then has been left burning. The flame is unsteady, of the density of that of burning spirits, and smells like burning pit coal. Water sometimes collects in the basin, which is remarkably cold, and is kept in ebullition by the vapour issuing through it; if the vapour be fired in that state, the water soon becomes so warm that the hand cannot bear it, and evaporates wholly in a short time. This, with the circumjacent lands, is the property of President Washington and of General Lewis.

There is a similar one on Sandy river, the flame of which is a column of about 12 inches diameter and three feet high. General Clarke kindled the vapour, staid about an hour, and left it burning.

The mention of uncommon springs leads to that of Syphon fountains: there is one of these near the intersection of the Lord Fairfax's boundary with the North Mountain, not far from Brock's gap, on the stream of which is a grist mill, which grinds two bushels of grain at every flood of the spring. Another near the Cow Pasture river, a mile and a half below its confluence with the Bull Pasture river, and 16 or 17 miles

from the Hot Springs, which intermits once in every twelve hours. One also near the mouth of the North Holston.

After these may be mentioned, the Natural Well on the lands of a Mr. Lewis, in Frederick county: it is somewhat larger than a common well; the water rises in it as near the surface of the earth as in the neighbouring artificial wells, and is of a depth as yet unknown. It is said, there is a current in it tending sensibly downwards; if this be true, it probably feeds some fountain, of which it is the natural reservoir, distinguished from others, like that of Madison's cave, by being accessible: it is used with a bucket and windlass as an ordinary well.

POPULATION.] See table.

MILITIA.] Every able-bodied freeman, between the ages of 16 and 50, is enrolled in the militia. Those of every county are formed into companies, and these again into one or more battalions, according to the numbers in the county: they are commanded by colonels, and other subordinate officers, as in the regular service. In every county is a county lieutenant, who commands the whole militia in his county, but ranks only as a colonel in the field. They have no general officers always existing: these are appointed occasionally, when an invasion or insurrection happens, and their commission determines with the occasion. The governor is head of the military as well as civil power. The law requires every militia-man to provide himself with the arms usual in the regular service. But this injunction was always indifferently complied with, and the arms they had have been so frequently called for to arm the regulars, that in the lower parts of the country they are entirely disarmed. In the middle country a fourth or fifth part of them may have such firelocks as they had provided to destroy the noxious animals which infest their farms; and on the western side of the Blue Ridge they are generally armed with rifles.

The interfection of Virginia, by so many navigable rivers, renders it almost incapable of defence: as the land will not support a great number of people, a force cannot soon be collected to repel a sudden invasion. If the militia bear the same proportion to the number of inhabitants now, as in 1782, they amount to about 68,000.

CHIEF TOWNS.] They have no townships in this State, nor any towns of consequence, owing probably to the interfection of the country by navigable rivers, which brings the trade to the doors of the inhabitants, and prevents the necessity of their going in quest of it to a distance.

WILLIAMSBURGH, which till the year 1780 was the seat of government, never contained above 1800 inhabitants, and Norfolk, the most populous town they ever had in Virginia, contained but 6000. The towns, or more properly villages or hamlets, are as follows:

On James river and its waters—Norfolk, Portsmouth, Hampton, Suffolk, Smithfield, Williamsburg, Petersburg, Richmond, the seat of government, Manchester, Charlottesville, New London.—On York river and its waters, York, Newcastle, Hanover.—On Rappahannock, Urbanna, Port Royal, Fredericksburg, Falmouth.—On Patomak and its waters, Dumfries, Colchester, Alexandria, Winchester, Staunton.

There are places at which, like some of the foregoing, the laws have said there shall be towns, but nature has said there shall not; and they remain unworthy of enumeration. Norfolk will probably become the emporium for all the trade of the Chesapeake Bay and its waters; and a canal of eight or ten miles, which is contemplated, and will probably soon be completed, will bring it to all that of Albemarle sound and its waters. Secondary to this place, are the towns at the head of the tide waters, to wit, Petersburg on Appamattox, Richmond on James river, Newcastle on York river, Fredericksburgh

dericksburgh on Rappahannock, and Alexandria on Patomak. From these the distribution will be to subordinate situations of the country. Accidental circumstances however may control the indications of nature, and in no instances do they do it more frequently than in the rise and fall of towns.

To the foregoing general account, we add the following more particular descriptions :

ALEXANDRIA stands on the south bank of Patomak river in Fairfax county : its situation is elevated and pleasant ; the soil is clay. The original settlers, anticipating its future growth and importance, laid out the streets upon the plan of Philadelphia. It contains about 400 houses, many of which are handsomely built, and nearly 3000 inhabitants. This town, upon opening the navigation of Patomak river, and in consequence of its vicinity to the city of Washington, will probably be one of the most thriving commercial places on the continent.

MOUNT VERNON, the celebrated seat of President Washington, is pleasantly situated on the Virginia bank of the river Patomak, where it is nearly two miles wide, and is about 280 miles from the sea, and 127 from Point Look-out, at the mouth of the river. It is nine miles below Alexandria, and four above the beautiful seat of the late Colonel Fairfax, called Bellevoir. The area of the mount is 200 feet above the surface of the river, and, after furnishing a lawn of five acres in front, and about the same in rear of the buildings, falls off rather abruptly on those two quarters. On the north end it subsides gradually into extensive pasture grounds ; while on the south it slopes more steeply in a shorter distance, and terminates with the coach-house, stables, vineyard, and nurseries. On either wing is a thick grove of different flowering forest trees. Parallel with them, on the land side, are two spacious gardens, into which one is led by two serpentine gravel walks, planted with weeping willows and shady shrubs. The mansion house itself (though much embellished by, yet not perfectly satisfactory to the chaste taste of the present possessor) appears venerable and convenient. The superb banquetting room has been finished since he returned home from the army. A lofty portico, 96 feet in length, supported by eight pillars, has a pleasing effect when viewed from the water ; the whole assemblage of the green-house, school-house, offices and servants' halls, when seen from the land side, bears a resemblance to a rural village ; especially as the lands on that side are laid out somewhat in the form of English gardens, in meadows and grass grounds, ornamented with little copses, circular clumps, and single trees. A small park on the margin of the river, where the English fallow-deer, and the American wild deer are seen through the thickets, alternately with the vessels as they are sailing along, add a romantic and picturesque appearance to the whole scenery. On the opposite side of a small creek to the northward, an extensive plain, exhibiting corn-fields and cattle grazing, affords in summer a luxuriant landscape ; while the blended verdure of woodlands and cultivated declivities, on the Maryland shore, variegates the prospect in a charming manner. Such are the philosophic shades to which the late Commander in Chief of the American armies retired from the tumultuous scenes of a busy world, and which he has since left to dignify, by his unequalled abilities, the most important office in the gift of his fellow citizens.

FREDERICKSBURGH, in the county of Spotsylvania, is situated on the south side of Rappahannock river, 110 miles from its mouth ; and contains about 200 houses, principally on one street, which runs nearly parallel with the river, and 1500 inhabitants.

RICHMOND, in the county of Henrico, is the present seat of government, and stands on the north side of James river, just at the foot of the falls, and contains between 400 and 500 houses, and nearly 4000 inhabitants. Part of the houses are built upon the

margin of the river, convenient for business; the rest are upon a hill which overlooks the lower part of the town, and commands an extensive prospect of the river and adjacent country. The new houses are well built. A large state-house, or capitol, has lately been erected on the hill. The lower part of the town is divided by a creek, over which is a convenient bridge. A bridge between 300 and 400 yards in length, has lately been thrown across James river at the foot of the fall, by Colonel Mayo. That part from Manchester to the island is built on fifteen boats. From the island to the rocks was formerly a floating bridge of rafts, but Colonel Mayo has now built it of framed log piers, filled with stone. From the rocks to the landing at Richmond, the bridge is continued on framed piers filled with stone. This bridge connects Richmond with Manchester; and as the passengers pay toll, it produces a handsome revenue to Colonel Mayo, who is the sole proprietor.

The falls above the bridge are seven miles in length. A noble canal is cutting and nearly completed on the north side of the river, which is to terminate in a basin of about two acres, in the town of Richmond. From this basin to the wharves in the river will be a land carriage of about a mile. This canal is cutting under the direction of a company, who have calculated the expense at 30,000*l.* Virginia money: this they have divided into 500 shares of 60*l.* each. The opening of this canal promises the addition of much wealth to Richmond.

PETERSBURGH, 25 miles southward of Richmond, stands on the south side of Appamattox river, and contains upwards of 300 houses in two divisions; one is upon a clay cold soil, and is very dirty, the other upon a plain of sand or loam. There is no regularity and very little elegance in Petersburg, it is merely a place of business. The Free Masons have a hall tolerably elegant. It is very unhealthy,* being shut out from the access of the winds by high hills on every side. This confined situation has such an effect upon the constitutions of the inhabitants, that they very nearly resemble those of hard drinkers; hence, in the opinion of physicians, they require a considerable quantity of stimulating aliments and vinous drinks to keep up a balance between the several functions of the body.

About 2200 hogsheds of tobacco are inspected here annually. Like Richmond, Williamsburgh, Alexandria, and Norfolk, it is a corporation; and what is singular, Petersburg city comprehends a part of three counties. The celebrated Indian queen, Pocahontas, from whom descended the Randolph and Bowling families, formerly resided at this place. Petersburg and its suburbs contain about 3000 inhabitants.

WILLIAMSBURGH is 60 miles eastward of Richmond, situated between two creeks; one falling into James, the other into York river. The distance of each landing place is about a mile from the town, which, with the disadvantage of not being able to bring up large vessels, and want of enterprize in the inhabitants, are the reasons why it never flourished: it consists of about 200 houses, going fast to decay, and has about 1400 inhabitants: it is regularly laid out in parallel streets, with a square in the center, through which runs the principal street, E. and W. about a mile in length, and more than 100 feet wide. At the ends of this street are two public buildings, the college and capitol: besides these, there is an episcopal church, a prison, a hospital for lunatics, and the palace: all of them extremely indifferent. In the capitol is a large marble statue, in the likeness of Narbone Berkley, Lord Botetourt, a man distinguished for his love of piety, literature, and good government, and formerly governor of Vir-

* It is asserted, as an undoubted fact, by a number of gentlemen well acquainted with this town, that, in 1781, "one child only born in it had arrived to manhood, and he was a cripple."

ginia: it was erected at the expense of the State, some time since the year 1771. The capitol is little better than in ruins, and this elegant statue is exposed to the rudeness of negroes and boys, and is shamefully defaced.

Every thing in Williamburgh appears dull, forsaken, and melancholy; no trade; no amusement, but the infamous one of gaming; no industry, and very little appearance of religion. The unprosperous state of the college, but principally the removal of the seat of government, have contributed much to the decline of this city.

YORKTOWN, 13 miles eastward from Williamburgh, and 14 from Monday's point at the mouth of the river, is a place of about 100 houses, situated on the south side of York river, and contains about 700 inhabitants. It was rendered famous by the capture of Lord Cornwallis and his army, on the 19th of October, 1781, by the united forces of France and America.

COLLEGES, ACADEMIES, &c.] The college of William and Mary was founded in the time of King William and Queen Mary, who granted to it 20,000 acres of land, and a penny a pound duty on certain tobaccos exported from Virginia and Maryland, which had been levied by the statute of 25 Car. II. The assembly also gave it, by temporary laws, a duty on liquors imported, and skins and furs exported. From these resources it received upwards of 3000l. The buildings are of brick, sufficient for an indifferent accommodation of perhaps 100 students. By its charter it was to be under the government of 20 visitors, who were to be its legislators, and to have a president and six professors, who were incorporated: it was allowed a representative in the General Assembly. Under this charter, a professorship of the Greek and Latin languages, a professorship of mathematics, one of moral philosophy, and two of divinity, were established. To these were annexed, for a sixth professorship, a considerable donation by a Mr. Boyle of England, for the instruction of the Indians, and their conversion to Christianity: this was called the professorship of Brattleton, from an estate of that name in England, purchased with the monies given. The admission of the learners of Latin and Greek filled the college with children: this rendering it disagreeable and degrading to young gentlemen already prepared for entering on the sciences, they were discouraged from resorting to it, and thus the schools for mathematics and moral philosophy, which might have been of some service, became of very little. The revenues too were exhausted in accommodating those who came only to acquire the rudiments of science. After the present revolution, the visitors having no power to change those circumstances in the constitution of the college which were fixed by the charter, and being therefore confined in the number of professorships, undertook to change the objects of the professorships. They excluded the two schools for divinity, and that for the Greek and Latin languages, and substituted others; so that at present they stand thus—A professorship for law and police; anatomy and medicine; natural philosophy and mathematics; moral philosophy, the law of nature and nations, the fine arts; modern languages; for the Brattleton.

Measures have been taken to increase the number of professorships, as well for the purpose of subdividing those already instituted, as of adding others for other branches of science. To the professorships usually established in the universities of Europe, it would seem proper to add one for the ancient languages and literature of the north, on account of their connection with our own language, laws, customs, and history. The purposes of the Brattleton institution would be better answered by maintaining a perpetual mission among the Indian tribes, the object of which, besides instructing them in the principles of Christianity, as the founder requires, should be to collect their traditions, laws, customs, languages, and other circumstances which might lead to a discovery

discovery of their relation to one another, or descent from other nations. When these objects are accomplished with one tribe, the missionary might pass on to another.

The college edifice is a huge, mishapen pile; "which but that it has a root, would be taken for a brick-kiln." In 1787, there about thirty young gentlemen members of this college, a large proportion of which were law students. The academy in Prince Edward county has been erected into a college by the name of Hampden Sydney college. It has been a flourishing seminary, but is now said to be on the decline.

There are several academies in Virginia; one at Alexandria, one at Norfolk, and others in other places.

Since the declaration of independence the laws of Virginia have been revised by a committee appointed for the purpose, who have reported their work to the Assembly; one object of this revival was to diffuse knowledge more generally through the mass of the people. The bill for this purpose "proposes to lay off every county into small districts of five or six miles square, called hundreds, and in each of them to establish a school for teaching reading, writing, and arithmetic. The tutor to be supported by the hundred, and all persons in it entitled to send their children three years gratis, and as much longer as they please, paying for it. These schools to be under a visitor, who is annually to chuse the boy of best genius in the school, of those whose parents are too poor to give them further education, and to send him forward to one of the grammar schools, of which twenty are proposed to be erected in different parts of the country, for teaching Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of numerical arithmetic. Of the boys thus sent in any one year, trial is to be made at the grammar schools, one or two years, and the best genius of the whole selected and continued six years, and the residue dismissed; by this means twenty of the best geniuses will be raked from the rubbish annually, and instructed, at the public expense, so far as the grammar schools go. At the end of six years instruction, one half are to be discontinued (from among whom the grammar schools will probably be supplied with future masters), and the other half, who are to be chosen for the superiority of their parts and disposition, are to be sent and continued three years in the study of such sciences as they shall chuse, at William and Mary college, the plan of which is proposed to be enlarged, as will be hereafter explained, and extended to all the useful sciences. The ultimate result of the whole scheme of education would be the teaching all the children of the State reading, writing, and common arithmetic; turning out ten annually of superior genius, well taught in Greek, Latin, Geography, and the higher branches of arithmetic; turning out ten others annually, of still superior parts, who, to those branches of learning, shall have added such of the sciences as their genius shall have led them to: the furnishing to the wealthier part of the people convenient schools, at which their children may be educated, at their own expense. The general objects of this law are to provide an education adapted to the years, to the capacity, and the condition of every one, and directed to their freedom and happiness. Specific details were not proper for the law: these must be the business of the visitors entrusted with its execution. The first stage of this education being the schools of the hundreds, wherein the great mass of the people will receive their instruction, the principal foundations of future order will be laid here. The first elements of morality may be instilled into their minds; such as, when further developed as their judgements advance in strength, may teach them how to promote their own greatest happiness, by showing them that it does not depend on the condition of life in which chance has placed them, but is always the result of a good conscience, good health, occupation, and freedom in all just pursuits. Those whom either the wealth of their parents, or the adoption of the State, shall

shall destine to higher degrees of learning, will go on to the grammar schools, which constitute the next stage, there to be instructed in the languages. As soon as they are of a sufficient age, it is supposed they will be sent on from the grammar schools to the university, which constitutes the third and last stage, there to study those sciences which may be adapted to their views. By that part of the plan which prescribes the selection of the youths of genius from among the classes of the poor, the State will avail itself of those talents which nature has sown as liberally among the poor as the rich, but which perish without use, if not sought for and cultivated. But of all the views of this law none is more important, none more legitimate, than that of rendering the people the safe, as they are the ultimate, guardians of their own liberty: for this purpose, the reading in the first stage, where they will receive their whole education, is proposed, as has been said, to be chiefly historical. History, by apprising them of the past, will enable them to judge of the future; it will avail them of the experience of other times and other nations; it will qualify them as judges of the actions and designs of men; it will enable them to know ambition under every disguise it may assume; and knowing it, to defeat its views. In every government on earth is some trace of human weakness, some germ of corruption and degeneracy, which cunning will discover, and wickedness insensibly open, cultivate, and improve. Every government degenerates when trusted to the rulers of the people alone: the people themselves therefore are its only safe depositories; and to render even them safe, their minds must be improved to a certain degree: this indeed is not all that is necessary, though it be essentially necessary. The influence over government must be shared among all the people. If every individual, which composes their mass, participates of the ultimate authority, the government will be safe; because the corrupting the whole mass will exceed any private resources of wealth; and public ones cannot be provided but by levies on the people: in this case every man would have to pay his own price. The government of Great Britain has been corrupted, because but one man in ten has a right to vote for members of parliament. The sellers of the government therefore get nine-tenths of their price clear.

The excellent measures for the diffusion of useful knowledge, which the forementioned bill proposes, have not yet been carried into effect. And it will be happy if the great inequality in the circumstances of the citizens; the pride, the independence, and the indolence of one class; and the poverty and depression of the other, do not prove insuperable difficulties in the way of their universal operation.

RELIGION.] The first settlers in this country were emigrants from England, of the English church, just at a point of time when it was flushed with complete victory over the religious of all other persuasions. Possessed, as they became, of the powers of making, administering, and executing the laws, they shewed equal intolerance in this country with their Presbyterian brethren, who had emigrated to the northern government. The Quakers were flying from persecution in England: they cast their eyes on these new countries, as asylums of civil and religious freedom; but they found them free only for the reigning sect. Several acts of the Virginia assembly of 1659, 1662, and 1663, had made it penal in their parents to refuse to have their children baptized; had prohibited the unlawful assembling of Quakers; had made it penal for any master of a vessel to bring a Quaker into the State; had ordered those already here, and such as should come thereafter, to be imprisoned till they should abjure the country; provided a milder punishment for their first and second return, but death for the third; had inhibited all persons from suffering their meetings in or near their houses, entertaining them individually, or disposing of books which supported their tenets. If no capital execution took

took place here, as did in New England, it was not owing to the moderation of the church, or spirit of the legislature, as may be inferred from the law itself; but to historical circumstances which have not been handed down to us. The Episcopalians retained full possession of the country about a century. Other opinions began to creep in; and the great care of the government to support their own church, having begotten an equal degree of indolence in its clergy, two-thirds of the people had become dissenters at the commencement of the present revolution. The laws, indeed, were still oppressive on them, but the spirit of the one party had subsided into moderation, and of the other had risen to a degree of determination which commanded respect.

The present denominations of Christians in Virginia are Presbyterians, who are the most numerous, and inhabit the western parts of the State; Episcopalians, who are the most ancient settlers, and occupy the eastern and first settled parts of the State. Intermingled with these are great numbers of Baptists and Methodists.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] Virginia prides itself in being "The Ancient Dominion." It has produced some of the most distinguished and influential men that have been active in effecting the two late grand and important revolutions in America. Her political and military character will rank among the first in the page of history: but it is to be observed, that this character has been obtained for the Virginians by a few eminent men, who have taken the lead in all their public transactions, and who, in short, govern Virginia; for the great body of the people do not concern themselves with politics; so that their government, though nominally republican, is, in fact, oligarchal or aristocratical.

The Virginians, who are rich, are in general sensible, polite, and hospitable, and of an independent spirit. The poor are ignorant and abject, and all are of an inquisitive turn. A considerable proportion of the people are much addicted to gaming, drinking, swearing, horse-racing, cock-fighting, and most kinds of dissipation. There is a much greater disparity between the rich and the poor, in Virginia, than in any of the northern States. The native inhabitants are too generally unacquainted with business, owing to their pride, and false notions of greatness. Before the revolution they considered it as beneath a gentleman to attend to mercantile matters, and devoted their time principally to amusement. By these means the Scotch people and other foreigners who came among them, became their merchants, and suddenly grew rich. The influence of slavery here is equally pernicious to the morals of the citizens as in the other southern States.

CONSTITUTION, COURTS, AND LAWS.] The executive powers are lodged in the hands of a governor, chosen annually, and incapable of acting more than three years in seven. He is assisted by a council of eight members. The judiciary powers are divided among several courts, as will be hereafter explained. Legislation is exercised by two houses of Assembly, the one called the House of Delegates, composed of two members from each county, chosen annually by the citizens, possessing an estate for life in 100 acres of uninhabited land, or twenty-five acres with a house on it, or in a house or lot in some town; the other called the Senate, consisting of twenty-four members chosen quadrennially by the same electors, who for this purpose are distributed into twenty-four districts. The concurrence of both houses is necessary to the passing of a law. They have the appointment of the governor and council, the judges of the superior courts, auditors, attorney-general, treasurer, register of the land office.

This constitution was the first that was formed in the whole United States.

There

There are three superior courts, to which appeals lie from the courts below, to wit, the high court of chancery, the general court, and court of admiralty. The first and second of these receive appeals from the county courts, and also have original jurisdiction where the subject of controversy is of the value of ten pounds sterling, or where it concerns the title or bounds of land. The jurisdiction of the admiralty is original altogether. The high court of chancery is composed of three judges, the general court of five, and the court of admiralty of three. The two first hold their sessions at Richmond at stated times, the chancery twice in the year, and the general court twice for business civil and criminal, and twice more for criminal only. The court of admiralty sits at Williamsburgh whenever a controversy arises.

There is one supreme court, called the Court of Appeals, composed of the judges of the three superior courts, assembling twice a year at stated times at Richmond. This court receives appeals in all civil cases from each of the superior courts, and determines them finally. But it has no original jurisdiction.

All public accounts are settled with a board of auditors, consisting of three members appointed by the General Assembly, any two of whom may act. But an individual, dissatisfied with the determination of that board, may carry his case into the proper superior court.

In 1661, the laws of England were expressly adopted by an act of the Assembly of Virginia, except so far as a "difference of condition" render them inapplicable. To these were added a number of acts of Assembly passed during the monarchy, and ordinances of convention, and acts of Assembly since the establishment of the republic. The following variations from the British model are worthy of notice:

Debtors unable to pay their debts, and making faithful delivery of their whole effects, are released from their confinement, and their persons for ever discharged from restraint for such previous debts: but any property they may afterwards acquire will be subject to their creditors. The poor, unable to support themselves, are maintained by an assessment on the titheable persons in their parish. A foreigner of any nation, not in open war, becomes naturalized by removing to the State to reside, and taking an oath of fidelity; and thereby acquires every right of a native citizen. Slaves pass by descent and dower as lands do. Slaves, as well as lands, were entailable during the monarchy: but, by an act of the first republican Assembly, all donees in tail, present and future, were vested with the absolute dominion of the entailed subject. Gaming debts are made void, and monies actually paid to discharge such debts (if they exceed forty shillings) may be recovered by the payer within three months, or by any other person afterwards. Tobacco, flour, beef, pork, tar, pitch, and turpentine, must be inspected by persons publicly appointed before they can be exported.

In 1785, the Assembly enacted, that no man should be compelled to support any religious worship, place, or minister whatsoever, nor be enforced, restrained, molested, or burdened in his body or goods, nor otherwise suffer on account of his religious opinions or belief; but that all men should be free to profess, and by argument to maintain, their opinion in matters of religion; and that the same should in no wise diminish, enlarge, or affect their civil capacities.

In October 1786, an act was passed by the Assembly prohibiting the importation of slaves into the Commonwealth, upon penalty of the forfeiture of the sum of 1000l. for every slave. And every slave imported contrary to the true intent and meaning of this act, becomes free.

MANUFACTURES AND COMMERCE.] Before the war, the inhabitants of this State paid but little attention to the manufacture of their own clothing. It has been

thought they used to import as much as *seven-eighths* of their clothing, and that they now manufacture *three-quarters* of it. We have before mentioned that considerable quantities of iron are manufactured in this State. To these we may add the manufacture of lead; besides which they have few others of consequence. The people are much attached to agriculture and prefer foreign manufactures.

Before the war this State exported, *communibus annis*, according to the best information that could be obtained, as follows:

T A B L E.

Articles.	Quantity.	Amount in Dollars.
Tobacco	55,000 hhds. of 100lb.	1,650,000
Wheat	800,000 bushels	666,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Indian corn	600,000 bushels	200,000
Shipping	— —	100,000
Malts, planks, skantling, shingles, } staves	— —	66,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Tar, pitch, turpentine	30,000 barrels	40,000
Peltry, viz. skins of deer, beavers, } otters, musk rats, racoons, foxes }	180 hlds. of 600lb.	42,000
Pork	4,000 barrels	40,000
Flax-seed, hemp, cotton	— —	8,000
Pit coal, pig iron	— —	6,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Peas	5,000 bushels	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Beef	1,000 barrels	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Sturgeon, white shad, herring	— —	3,333 $\frac{1}{3}$
Brandy from peaches and apples, } and whiskey	— —	1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
Horses	— —	1,666 $\frac{2}{3}$
		2,833,333 $\frac{1}{3}$

This sum is equal to 850,000*l.* Virginia money, 657,142 guineas.

The amount of exports from this State in the year succeeding October 1, 1790, consisting chiefly of articles mentioned in the foregoing table, was 3,131,227 dollars. About 40,000 hogsheds of tobacco only were exported this year.

In the year 1758, this State exported seventy thousand hogsheds of tobacco, which was the greatest quantity ever produced in this country in one year. But its culture has fast declined since the commencement of the war, and that of wheat taken its place. The price which it commands at market will not enable the planter to cultivate it. Were the supply still to depend on Virginia and Maryland alone, as its culture becomes more difficult, this price would rise, so as to enable the planter to surmount those difficulties and to live. But the western country on the Mississippi, and the midlands of Georgia, have fresh and fertile lands in abundance, and a hotter sun, are able to undersell these two States, and will oblige them in time to abandon the raising tobacco altogether. And a happy obligation for them it will be. It is a culture productive of infinite wretchedness. Those employed in it are in a continued state of exertion beyond the powers of nature to support. Little food of any kind is raised by them; so that the men and animals on these farms are badly fed, and the earth is rapidly

rapidly impoverished. The cultivation of wheat is the reverse in every circumstance. Besides clothing the earth with herbage, and preserving its fertility, it feeds the labourers plentifully, requires from them only a moderate toil, except in the season of harvest, raises great numbers of animals for food and service, and diffuses plenty and happiness among the whole. It is easier to make an hundred bushels of wheat than a thousand weight of tobacco, and they are worth more when made,

It is not easy to say what are the articles either of necessity, comfort, or luxury, which cannot be raised here, as every thing hardier than the olive, and as hardy as the fig, may be raised in the open air. Sugar, coffee, and tea, indeed, are not between these limits; and habit having placed them among the necessities of life with the wealthy, as long as these habits remain, they must go for them to those countries which are able to furnish them.

HISTORY.] We have already given a brief historical account of the first settlement of Virginia, till the arrival of Lord Delaware in 1610. His arrival with a fresh supply of settlers and provisions revived the drooping spirits of the former company, and gave permanency and respectability to the settlement.

In April 1613, Mr. John Rolfe, a worthy young gentleman, was married to *Pocahontas*, the daughter of *Powhatan*, the famous Indian chief. This connection, which was very agreeable both to the English and Indians, was the foundation of a friendly and advantageous commerce between them.

In 1616, Mr. Rolfe, with his wife *Pocahontas*, visited England, where she was treated with that attention and respect which she had merited by her important services to the colony in Virginia. She died the year following at Gravesend, in the 22d year of her age, just as she was about to embark for America. She had embraced the Christian religion; and in her life and death evidenced the sincerity of her profession. She left a little son, who, having received his education in England, came over to Virginia, where he lived and died in affluence and honour, leaving behind him an only daughter. Her descendants are among the most respectable families in Virginia.

Tomocomo, a sensible Indian, brother-in-law to *Pocahontas*, accompanied her to England; and was directed by *Powhatan* to bring him an exact account of the numbers and strength of the English. For this purpose, when he arrived at Plymouth, he took a long stick, intending to cut a notch in it for every person he should see. This he soon found impracticable, and threw away his stick. On his return, being asked by *Powhatan*, how many people there were, he is said to have replied, "Count the stars in the sky, the leaves on the trees, and the sands on the sea shore; for such is the number of the people in England."

In pursuance of the authorities given to the company by their several charters, and more especially of that part in the charter of 1609, which authorised them to establish a form of government, they, on the 24th of July, 1621, by charter under their common seal, declared, That from thenceforward there should be two supreme councils in Virginia, the one to be called the Council of State, to be placed and displaced by the treasurer, council in England, and company, from time to time, whose office was to be that of assisting and advising the governor; the other to be called the General Assembly, to be convened by the governor once yearly, or oftener, which was to consist of the council of state, and two burgesses out of every town, hundred, or plantation, to be respectively chosen by the inhabitants. In this all matters were to be decided by the greater part of the votes present; reserving to the governor a negative voice; and they were to have power to treat, consult, and conclude all emergent occasions con-

cerning the public weal, and to make laws for the behoof and government of the colony, imitating and following the laws and policy of England as nearly as might be: provided that these laws should have no force till ratified in a general quarter court of the company in England, and returned under their common seal, and declaring that, after the government of the colony should be well framed and settled, no orders of the council in England should bind the colony unless ratified by the said General Assembly. The king and company quarrelled, and by a mixture of law and force, the latter were ousted of all their rights, without retribution; after having expended 100,000*l.* in establishing the colony; without the smallest aid from government. King James suspended their powers by proclamation of July 15, 1624, and Charles I. took the government into his own hands. Both sides had their partisans in the colony: but in truth, the people of the colony in general thought themselves little concerned in the dispute. There being three parties interested in these several charters, what passed between the first and second it was thought could not affect the third. If the king seized on the powers of the company, they only passed into other hands without increase or diminution, while the rights of the people remained as they were: but they did not remain so long. The northern parts of their country were granted away to the Lords Baltimore and Fairfax, the first of these obtaining also the rights of separate jurisdiction and government. And in 1650 the parliament, considering itself as standing in the place of their deposed king, and as having succeeded to all his powers, without as well as within the realm, began to assume a right over the colonies, passing an act for inhibiting their trade with foreign nations. This succession to the exercise of the kingly authority gave the first colour for parliamentary interference with the colonies, and produced that fatal precedent which they continued to follow after they had retired, in other respects, within their proper functions. When this colony, therefore, which still maintained its opposition to Cromwell and the parliament, was induced in 1651 to lay down their arms, they previously secured their most essential rights by a solemn convention.

This convention, entered into with arms in their hands, they supposed had secured the ancient limits of their country; its free trade; its exemption from taxation but by their own assembly, and exclusion of military force from among them. Yet in every of these points was this convention violated by subsequent king and parliaments, and other infractions of their constitution, equally dangerous, committed. The General Assembly, which was composed of the council of state and burgesses, sitting together and deciding by plurality of voices, was split into two houses, by which the council obtained a separate negative on their laws. Appeals from their supreme court, which had been fixed by law in their General Assembly, were arbitrarily revoked to England, to be there heard before the king and council. Instead of 400 miles on the sea coast, they were reduced, in the space of thirty years, to about 100 miles. Their trade with foreigners was totally suppressed, and, when carried to Great Britain, was there loaded with imposts. It is unnecessary, however, to glean up the several instances of injury, as scattered through American and British history; and the more especially, as, by passing on to the accession of the present king, we shall find specimens of them all, aggravated, multiplied, and crowded within a small compass of time, so as to evince a fixed design of considering the rights of the people, whether natural, conventional, or chartered, as mere nullities. The colonies were taxed internally; their essential interests sacrificed to individuals in Great Britain; their legislatures suspended; charters annulled; trials by juries taken away; their persons subjected to transportation across the Atlantic, and to trial before foreign judicatories; their supplications for redress

thought

thought beneath answer; themselves published as cowards in the councils of their mother country and courts of Europe; armed troops sent among them to enforce submission to these violences; and actual hostilities commenced against them. No alternative was presented but resistance or unconditional submission. Between these could be no hesitation. They closed in the appeal to arms. They declared themselves Independent States. They confederated together in one great republic; thus securing to every State the benefit of an union of their whole force. They fought—they conquered—and obtained an honourable and glorious peace.

LIST of PRESIDENTS and GOVERNORS of VIRGINIA, from its first settlement to the year 1624.*

Edward Maria Wingfield,	from	May,	1607,	to	Sept.	1607
John Ratcliffe,		Sept.	1607,	to	July,	1608
Mat. Scrivener, <i>Vice-President</i> ,		July,	1608,	to	Sept.	1608
John Smith,		Sept.	1608,	to	Sept.	1609
George Percy, <i>Governor</i> ,		Sept.	1609,	to	May,	1610
Sir Thomas Gates,		May,	1610,	to	June,	1610
Lord Delaware,		June,	1610,	to	March,	1611
George Percy,		March,	1611,	to	May,	1611
Sir Thomas Dale,		May,	1611,	to	Aug.	1611
Sir Thomas Gates,		August,	1611,	to		1614
Sir Thomas Dale,			1614,	to		1616
George Yeardley,			1616,	to		1617
Samuel Argall,			1617,	to		1619
George Yeardley,			1619,	to	Nov.	1621
Sir Francis Wyat,		Nov.	1621,	to		1624

INDIANA.

INDIANA, so called, is a tract of land lying on the Ohio river, in the State of Virginia, ceded to William Trent and twenty-two others, by the Six Nations, and the Shawanese, Delaware, and Huron tribes, as a compensation for the losses they had sustained by the depredations of the latter, in the year 1763. This session was made in a congress of the representatives of the Six Nations at Fort Stanwix, by an indenture, signed the 3d of November, 1768, witnessing, "That for and in consideration of \$5,916l. 10s. 8d. York currency, (the same being the amount of goods seized and taken by said Indians from said Trent, &c.) they did grant, bargain, sell, &c. to his Majesty, his heirs, and successors, for the only use of the said William Trent, &c. all that tract or parcel of land, beginning at the southerly side of the Little Kanhawa Creek, where it empties itself into the river Ohio; and running thence south-east to the Laurel Hill; thence along the Laurel Hill until it strikes the River Monongahela; thence down the

* Smith brings down the history of Virginia no farther than this period. A list of the governors since has not been received.

stream of the said river, according to the several courses thereof, to the southern boundary line of the province of Pennsylvania; thence westwardly along the course of the said province boundary line as far as the same shall extend; thence by the same course to the River Ohio, and then down the River Ohio to the place of beginning, inclusively.' This indenture was signed by six Indian chiefs, in presence of Sir William Johnson, Governor Franklin of New Jersey, and the Commissioners from Virginia, Pennsylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

Since the Indians had an undisputed title to the above limited territory, either from pre-occupancy or conquest, and their right was expressly acknowledged by the above deed of cession to the crown, it is very evident that Mr. Trent, in his own right, and as attorney for the traders, has a good, lawful, and sufficient title to the land granted by the said deed of conveyance.

This matter was laid before Congress in the year 1782, and a committee appointed to consider it, who, in May, reported as follows: "On the whole, your committee are of opinion that the purchases of Colonel Croghan and the Indian company were made *bona fide* for a valuable consideration, according to the then usage and customs of purchasing Indian lands from the Indians, with the knowledge, consent, and approbation of the Crown of Great Britain, the then government of New York and Virginia, and therefore do recommend that it be

Resolved, That if the said lands are finally ceded or adjudged to the United States in point of jurisdiction, that Congress will confirm to such of the said purchasers who are, and shall be citizens of the United States, or either of them, their respective shares and proportions of said lands, making a reasonable deduction for the value of the quit rents reserved by the Crown of England."

Notwithstanding this report of the committee, the question could never be brought to a decision before Congress. The federal constitution has, however, made provision for the determination of this business before the supreme federal court. But previous to an appeal to this court, the proprietors thought proper, by their agent, Colonel Morgan, (who is also a proprietor) to present a memorial to the legislature of Virginia, setting forth their claims, and praying that the business might be equitably settled. This memorial was presented in November, 1790; and thus the Indiana business rests for the present.

K E N T U C K Y.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Square Miles.
Length 250 }	between { 80° and 15° W. Longitude.	50,000
Breadth 200 }	{ 36° 30' and 39° 30' N. Latitude.	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north-west, by the River Ohio; west, by Cumberland river; south, by North Carolina; east, by Sandy river, and a line drawn due south from its source, till it strikes the northern boundary of North Carolina.

stream of the said river, according to the several courses thereof, to the southern boundary line of the province of Pennsylvania; thence westwardly along the course of the said province boundary line as far as the same shall extend; thence by the same course to the River Ohio, and then down the River Ohio to the place of beginning, inclusively.' This indenture was signed by six Indian chiefs, in presence of Sir William Johnson, Governor Franklin of New Jersey, and the Commissioners from Virginia, Pennsylvania, &c. making twelve in the whole.

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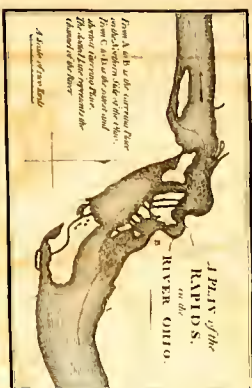
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to	20	3
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Exhib. 4X14100V.
Exhib. 4X14100V.

EXPLANATION.
 1. *Interior or Forest.*
 2. *Springs and Lakes.*
 3. *Town.*
 4. *The other houses and Mills.*
 5. *Highways.*
 The dotted lines represent *Roads.*
 A *new Church* others not.

*The stream of the Rhine is in every
Moderate, except the Rapids*

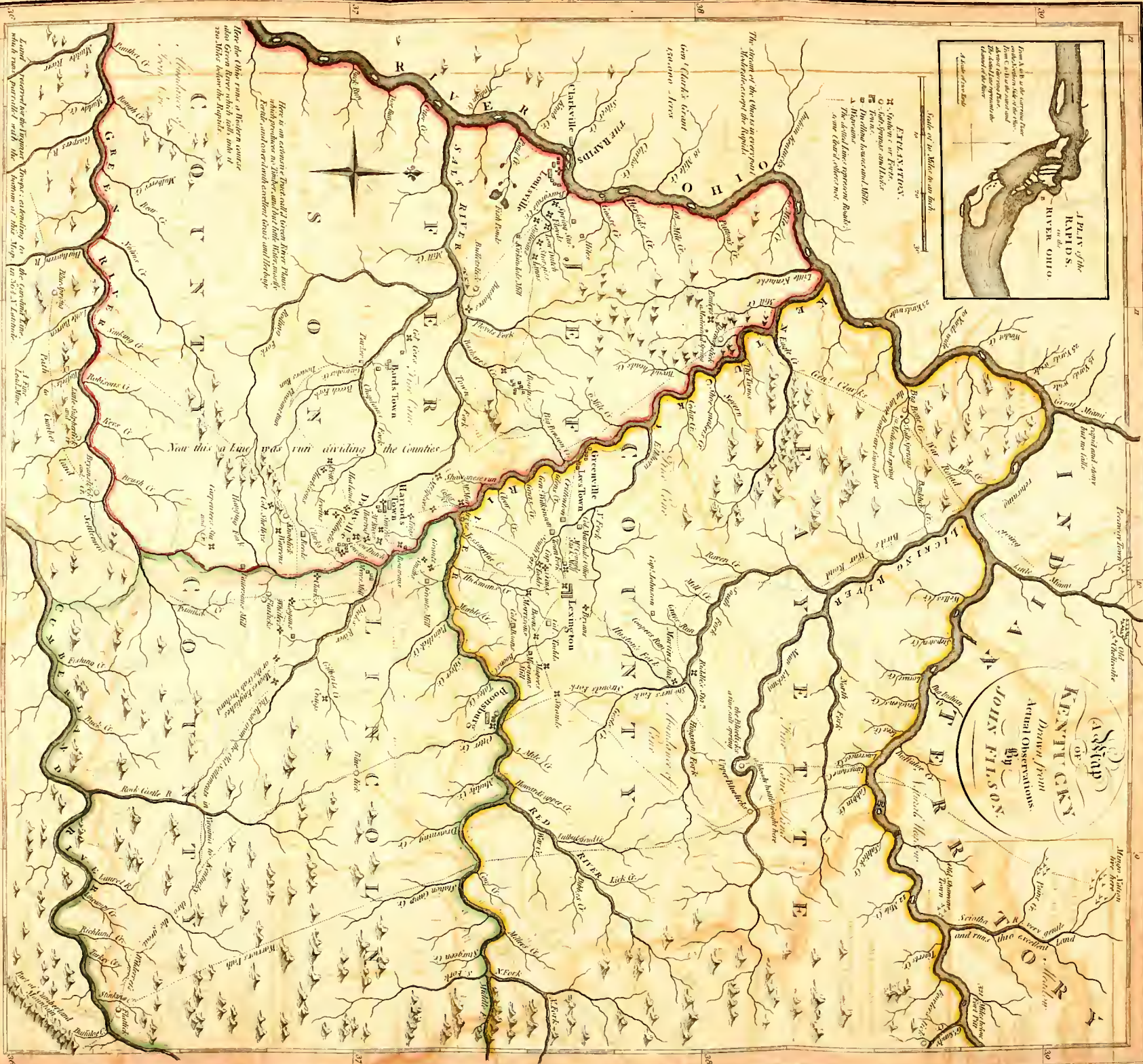
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Here the Ohio runs a hither and
also Green River which falls into it
230. Miles below the Rapids. 252

Here is an extensive tract called Green Pine Plains, which produces no timber, and but little wheat, mostly Potatoes, and covered with excellent farms and Herbage.

Near this a line was run dividing the counties

(A Ship)
 OF
 KENTUCKY
 Drawn from
 Actual Observations.
 By
 JOHN FLEMING.



[CIVIL DIVISIONS.] Kentucky was originally divided into two counties, Lincoln and Jefferſon. It has ſince been ſubdivided into nine, which follow:

Counties.	No. Inhab.	Chief Towns.	No. Inhab.
Jefferſon,	4,565	LOUISVILLE,	200
Fayette,	17,576	LEXINGTON,	834
Bourbon,	7,837		
Mercer,	6,941	Danville,	150
Nelson,	11,099	Beardſtown,	216
Madifon,	5,772		
Lincoln,	6,548		
Woodford,	9,210		
Maſon,	2,267	Waſhington,	462

Total 73,677 of whom 12,430 are ſlaves.

As moſt of theſe counties are very large, it is probable that ſubdiviſions will continue to be made, as population increaſes.

RIVERS.] The River Ohio waſhes the north-ſiſtern ſide of Kentucky, in its whole extent. Its principal branches, which water this fertile tract of country, are Sandy, Licking, Kentucky, Salt, Green, and Cumberland rivers. Theſe again branch in various directions into rivulets of different magnitudes, fertilizing the country in all its parts. At the bottoms of theſe watercourſes the lime-ſtone rock, which is common to this country, appears of a greyiſh colour; and where it lies expoſed to the air, in its natural ſtate, it looks like brown free-ſtone. On the banks of theſe rivers and rivulets, this ſtone has the appearance of fine marble, being of the ſame texture, and is found in the greateſt plenty.

Sandy, Licking, and Kentucky rivers riſe near each other, in the Cumberland mountains. Of theſe, Sandy river only breaks through the mountain. This river conſtitutes a part of the eaſtern boundary of Kentucky.

Licking river runs in a north-ſiſt direction upwards of 100 miles, and is about 100 yards broad at its mouth.

Kentucky is a very crooked river, and after running a courſe of more than 200 miles, empties into the Ohio by a mouth 150 yards broad.

Salt river riſes at four different places near each other. The windings of this river are curious. The four branches, after a circuitous courſe round a fine tract of land, unite; and after running about fifteen miles, empty into the Ohio, twenty miles below the falls. Its general courſe is ſiſtward; its length about ninety miles; and at its mouth is eighty yards wide.

Green river purſues a ſiſttern courſe upwards of 150 miles, and by a mouth eighty yards wide, falls into the Ohio, 120 miles below the rapids.

Cumberland river interlocks with the northern branch of Kentucky, and rolling round the other arms of Kentucky, among the mountains in a ſiſttern courſe, 100 miles; then in a ſiſt-ſiſttern courſe for above 200 more; then in a ſiſttern and ſiſt-ſiſttern courſe for about 250 more, finds the Ohio, 413 miles below the falls. At Naſhville, this river is 200 yards broad, and at its mouth 300. The river in about half its courſe, paſſes through the territory ſiſt of the Ohio.

Theſe rivers are navigable for boats almoſt to their ſources, without rapids, for the greateſt part of the year. Frequent rains in the latter end of the autumn produce floods in the Ohio, and it is an uncommon ſeaſon when one of theſe floods does not happen

happen before Christmas. If there is much frosty weather in the upper parts of the country, its waters generally remain low until they begin to thaw. But if the river is not frozen over, which is not very common, there is always water sufficient for boats of any size, from November until May; when the waters generally begin to subside; and by the middle of June, in most seasons, they are too low for boats above forty tons, and these must be flat-bottomed. The frost seldom continues so long as the middle of February, and immediately upon its breaking the river is flooded; this flood may in a degree subside, but for no length of time; and it is from that period until May, that the boats generally come down the river. The distance of descending is in proportion to the height of the water; but the average distance is about eighty miles in twenty-four hours, and from sixty to one hundred are the extremes; so that the mean time of going in a flat-bottomed boat from Pittsburgh to the rapids, is between eight and nine days, and about twenty days more to New Orleans; which will make a passage from Pittsburgh to that place nearly a month.

The little rivulets which chequer the country, begin to lessen in June, and quite disappear in the months of August, September, and October. The autumnal rains, however, in November replenish them again. The method of getting a supply of water in the dry season is by sinking wells, which are easily dug, and afford excellent water. The want of water in autumn is the great complaint. Mills, that may be supplied with water eight months in a year, may be erected in a thousand different places. Wind-mills and horse-mills may supply the other four months.

The banks of the rivers are generally high and composed of lime-stone. After heavy rains, the water in the rivers rises from 10 to 30 feet.

[SPRINGS.] There are five noted salt springs or licks in this country; viz. the higher and lower Blue Springs, on Licking river, from some of which, it is said, issue streams of brinisch water—the Big Bone lick, Drennon's licks, and Bullet's lick, at Saltsburgh. The last of these licks, though in low order, has supplied this country and Cumberland with salt, at twenty shillings the bushel, Virginia currency; and some is exported to the Illinois country. The method of procuring water from these licks is by sinking wells from 30 to 40 feet deep. The water drawn from these wells is more strongly impregnated with salt than the water from the sea. A strait road, 40 feet wide, has been cut from Saltsburgh to Louisville, 24 miles.

[FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] This whole country, as far as has yet been discovered, lies upon a bed of lime-stone, which in general is about six feet below the surface, except in the vallies, where the soil is much thinner. A tract of about twenty miles, along the banks of the Ohio, is hilly, broken land, interspersed with many fertile spots. The rest of the country is agreeably uneven, gently ascending and descending at no great distances. The angles of ascent are from eight to twenty-four degrees, and sometimes more. The vallies in common are very narrow, and the soil in them is very thin, and of an inferior quality; and that along the ascending ground is frequently not much better; for where you see a tree blown up, you find the roots clinging to the upper parts of the rock. The soil, on these agreeable ascents, (for they cannot be called hills) is sufficiently deep, as is evident from the size of the trees. The soil is either black, or tinged with a lighter or deeper vermilion, or is of the colour of dark ashes. In many places there are appearances of potter's clay, and coal in abundance. The country promises to be well supplied with wholesome, well-tasted water. In Nelson county, north-west of Rolling fork, a branch of Salt river, is a tract of about forty miles square, mostly barren, interspersed with plains and strips of good land, which are advantageous situations for raising cattle, as the neighbouring barrens,

as they are improperly styled, are covered with grass, and afford good pasturage. The lands east of Nolin Creek, a branch of Green river, are in general of an inferior quality; but the banks of Green river afford many desirable situations.

Towards the head waters of Kentucky river, which interlock with the waters of Cumberland and Sandy rivers, and the whole country eastward and southward as far as the Holstein river, is broken, mountainous, and almost impenetrable; and from the description given by hunters, it is much doubted whether it will ever be practicable to make a passable road from Kentucky across to Winchester, in Virginia, on the east side of the mountains, which, on a straight line, is not perhaps more than four hundred miles, and the way now travelled is six hundred. No country will admit of being thicker settled with farmers, who confine themselves to agriculture, than this.

Elkhorn river, a branch of the Kentucky, from the south-east, waters a country fine beyond description. Indeed, the country east and south of this, including the head waters of Licking river, Hickman's and Jessamine Creeks, and the remarkable bend in Kentucky river, may be called an extensive garden. The soil is deep and black, and the natural growth, large walnuts, honey and black locust, poplar, elm, oak, hickory, sugar tree, &c. Grape vines run to the tops of the trees; and the surface of the ground is covered with clover, blue grass, and wild rye. On this fertile tract, and the Licking river, and the head waters of Salt river, are the bulk of the settlements in this country. The soil within a mile or two of Kentucky river is generally of the third and fourth rates; and as you advance towards the Ohio, the land is poor and hilly.

Dick's river runs through a great body of first rate land, abounding with cane, and affords many excellent mill seats. Salt river has good lands on its head waters, except that they are low and unhealthy, but for twenty-five miles before it empties into the Ohio, the land on each side is level and poor, and abounds with ponds.

Cumberland river, so much of it as passes through Kentucky, traverses, some parts excepted, a hilly, poor country.

Green river overflows its banks a considerable way up, at the season when the Ohio swells, which is in April. This swell in Green river occasions several of its branches to overflow, and cover the low grounds with water, leaves and vegetable substances, which, in summer, become noxious and unhealthy. Its banks are fine and fertile. There is a great body of good land near the falls and rapids in the Ohio, called Bare Grass; but the climate is rendered unhealthy by ponds of stagnant water, which may be easily drained.

This country in general is well timbered. Of the natural growth which is peculiar to this country, we may reckon the sugar, the coffee, the papaw, and the cucumber tree. The two last are soft wood, and bear a fruit of the shape and size of a cucumber. The coffee tree resembles the black oak, and bears a pod, which incloses a seed, of which a drink is made not unlike coffee. Besides these, there is the honey locust, black mulberry, wild cherry, of a large size. The buck-eye, an exceedingly soft wood, is the horse chestnut of Europe. The magnolia bears a beautiful blossom, of a rich and exquisite fragrance. Such is the variety and beauty of the flowering shrubs and plants which grow spontaneously in this country, that in the proper season the wilderness appears in blossom.

The accounts of the fertility of the soil in this country have, in some instances, exceeded belief; and probably have been exaggerated. That some parts of Kentucky, particularly the high grounds, are remarkably good, all accounts agree. The lands of the first rate are too rich for wheat, and will produce 50 or 60, and in some instances,

it is affirmed, 100 bushels of good corn, an acre. In common, the land will produce thirty bushels of wheat or rye an acre. Barley, oats, cotton, flax, hemp, and vegetables of all kinds, common in this climate, yield abundantly. The old Virginia planters say, that if the climate does not prove too moist, few soils known will yield more or better tobacco. Experience has proved, that the climate is not too moist. Great quantities of this article have been exported to France and Spain, through New Orleans; and it is a well-known fact, that Philadelphia is a profitable market for the Kentucky planter, notwithstanding all the inconveniencies and expenses of re-shipment at New Orleans, under a Spanish government. What advantages then may not this country expect from a free navigation of the Mississippi, unrestrained by Spanish policy!

In the western territory is found all the variety of soil and climate necessary to the culture of every kind of grain, fibrous plants, cotton, fruits, vegetables, and all sorts of provisions. The upper settlements on the Ohio produce chiefly wheat, oats, barley, rye, Indian corn or maize, hemp, and flax. The fruits are, apples, pears, cherries, peaches, plums, strawberries, raspberries, currants, gooseberries, and grapes; of culinary plants and vegetables, there are turnips, potatoes, carrots, parsnips, cymbiline or squash, cucumbers, peas, beans, asparagus, cabbages, brocoli, celery, and sallads; besides which, there are melons and herbs of every sort. The provisions consist of beef, pork, mutton, veal, and a variety of poultry, such as ducks, Muscovy ducks, turkeys, geese, dunghill fowls, and pigeons. Some considerable quantity of spirits distilled from rye, and likewise cyder, are sent down the river to a market, in those infant settlements where the inhabitants have not had time to bring orchards to any perfection, or have not a superfluity of grain to distil into spirits. The beef, pork, and flour are disposed of in the same way. The flax and hemp are packed on horses and sent across the mountain to the inland towns of Pennsylvania and Maryland.

In the rivers are plenty of buffalo, pike, and catfish, of uncommon size; salmon, mullet, rock, perch, garfish, eel, suckers, sunfish, &c. Shad have not been caught in the western waters.

Swamps are rare in Kentucky; and of course the reptiles which they produce, such as snakes, frogs, &c. are not numerous. The honey-bee may be called a domestic insect, as it is said not to be found but in civilised countries. This is confirmed by a saying, which is common among the Indians, when they see a swarm of bees in the woods—"Well, brothers, it is time for us to decamp, for the white people are coming." Nevertheless bees, of late years, have abounded, to their amazement, even 200 miles N. and N. W. of the Ohio.

The quadrupeds, except the buffalo, are the same as in Virginia and the Carolinas.

CLIMATE.] Healthy and delightful, some few places in the neighbourhood of ponds and low grounds excepted. The inhabitants do not experience the extremes of heat and cold. Snow seldom falls deep or lies long. The winter, which begins about Christmas, is never longer than three months, and is commonly but two, and is so mild that cattle can subsist without fodder.

CHIEF TOWNS.] LEXINGTON, which stands on the head waters of Elkhorn river, is reckoned the capital of Kentucky. Here the courts are held, and business regularly conducted. In 1786 it contained about 100 houses, and several stores, with a good assortment of dry goods. It has greatly increased since, and contains about 900 inhabitants.

WASHINGTON, the shire town of Mason county, is the second town in this State, containing about 500 inhabitants.

LEESTOWN is west of Lexington, on the eastern bank of Kentucky river; it is regularly laid out, and is flourishing. The banks of Kentucky river are remarkably high, in some places 300 and 400 feet, composed generally of stupendous perpendicular rock; the consequence is, there are few crossing places; the best is at Leestown, which is a circumstance that must contribute much to its increase.

LOUISVILLE is at the rapids of the Ohio, in a fertile country, and promises to be a place of great trade; it has been made a port of entry. Its unhealthiness, owing to stagnated waters at the back of the town, has considerably retarded its growth. Besides these, there is Beardstown, in Nelson county; and Harrodsburg, in Mercer county; both on the head waters of Salt river. Danville, Boonsborough, and Granville, are also increasing towns.

POPULATION AND CHARACTER.] The population of this State in 1790, is given in the preceding table. In 1783, in the county of Lincoln* only, there were on the militia rolls 3570 men, chiefly emigrants from the lower parts of Virginia. In 1784, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at upwards of 30,000. It is asserted, that at least 20,000 migrated here in the year 1787. These people, collected from different States, of different manners, customs, religions, and political sentiments, have not been long enough together to form an uniform national character. Among the settlers there are gentlemen of abilities, and many genteel families, from several of the States, who give dignity and respectability to the settlement. They are, in general, more regular than people who generally settle new countries.

RELIGION.] The Baptists are the most numerous religious sect in Kentucky, There are several large congregations of Presbyterians, and some few of other denominations.

CONSTITUTION.] By the constitution of this State, formed and adopted in 1792, the powers of government are divided into three distinct departments; legislative, executive, and judiciary. The legislative power is vested in a General Assembly, consisting of a senate and house of representatives; the supreme executive, in a governor; the judiciary, in the supreme court of appeals, and such inferior courts as the legislature may establish. The representatives are chosen annually by the people; the senators and governor are chosen for four years, by electors appointed for that purpose; the judges are appointed, during good behaviour, by the governor, with advice of the senate. An enumeration of the free male inhabitants, above twenty-one years old, is to be made once in four years. After each enumeration, the number of senators and representatives is to be fixed by the legislature, and apportioned among the several counties according to the number of inhabitants. There can never be fewer than 40, nor more than 100 representatives. The senate at first consisted of eleven members; and for the addition of every four representatives, one senator is to be added. The representatives must be twenty-four years old; the senators twenty-seven; the governor thirty, and all of them must have been inhabitants of the State two years. The governor can hold no other office. The members of the General Assembly none but those of attorney at law, justice of the peace, coroner, and in the militia. The judges, and all other officers, must be inhabitants of the counties for which they are appointed. The governor, members of the General Assembly, and judges, receive stated salaries out of the public treasury, from which no money can be drawn, but in consequence of appropriation by law. All officers take an oath of fidelity to discharge the duties of their offices, and are liable to impeachment for misconduct. Elective

* The county, it is to be remembered, has since been divided and subdivided.

officers must swear that they have not used bribery in obtaining their elections. All free male citizens, twenty-one years old, having resided in the State two years, or in the county where they offer to vote, one year, have a right to vote for representatives, and for electors of senators and governor, and are privileged from arrest, in civil actions, while attending that business. The General Assembly meets on the first Monday in November in each year, unless sooner convened by the governor. Each house chooses its speaker and other officers, judges of the qualification of its members, and determines the rules of its proceedings, of which a journal is kept and published weekly, unless secrecy be requisite. The doors of both houses are kept open. The members of the legislature, while attending the public business, are privileged from arrests in civil actions, and may not be questioned elsewhere for any thing said in public debate. Impeachments are made by the lower house, and tried by the upper. All revenue bills originate in the house of representatives, and are amendable by the senate, like other bills. Each bill passed by both houses is presented to the governor, who must sign it if he approve it; if not, he must return it within ten days to the house in which it originated; if it be not returned, or if, when returned, it be re-passed by two thirds of both houses, it is a law without his signature. The governor has power to appoint most of the executive offices of the State; to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; to require information from executive officers; to convene the General Assembly on extraordinary occasions, and adjourn them in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the legislature of the state of the commonwealth; recommend to them such measures as he shall judge expedient; and see that the laws are faithfully executed. The speaker of the senate exercises the office of governor in case of vacancy. The legislature has power to forbid the farther importation of slaves, but not to emancipate those already in the State without the consent of the owner, or paying an equivalent. Treason against the commonwealth consists only in levying war against it, or in adhering to its enemies, giving them aid and comfort.

The declaration of rights asserts the civil equality of all; their right to alter the government at any time; liberty of conscience; freedom of elections, and of the press; trial by jury; the subordination of the military to the civil power; the rights of criminals to be heard in their own defence; the right of the people to petition for the redress of grievances, to bear arms, and to emigrate from the State. It prohibits unreasonable searches and seizures; excessive bail; confinement of debtors, unless there be presumption of fraud; suspension of habeas corpus writ, unless in rebellion or invasion; ex post facto laws; attainder by the legislature; standing armies; titles of nobility and hereditary distinction.

LITERATURE AND IMPROVEMENTS.] The legislature of Virginia, while Kentucky belonged to that State, made provision for a college in it, and endowed it with very considerable landed funds. The Rev. John Todd gave a very handsome library for its use. Schools are established in the several towns, and in general regularly and handsomely supported. They have a printing-office, and publish a Weekly Gazette. They have erected a paper mill, an oil mill, fulling mills, saw mills, and a great number of valuable grist mills. Their salt works are more than sufficient to supply all their inhabitants, at a low price. They make considerable quantities of sugar from the sugar trees. Labourers, particularly tradesmen, are exceedingly wanted here.

CURIOSITIES.] The banks, or rather precipices, of Kentucky and Dick's river, are to be reckoned among the natural curiosities of this country. Here the astonished eye beholds 300 or 400 feet of solid perpendicular rock, in some parts, of the lime-stone kind,

kind, and in others of fine white marble, curiously chequered with strata of astonishing regularity. These rivers have the appearance of deep artificial canals. Their high rocky banks are covered with red cedar groves.

Caves have been discovered in this country of several miles in length, under a fine lime-stone rock, supported by curious arches and pillars. Springs that emit sulphureous matter have been found in several parts of the country. One is near a salt spring in the neighbourhood of Boonsborough. There are three springs or ponds of bitumen near Green river, which do not form a stream, but empty themselves into a common reservoir, and when used in lamps, answer all the purposes of the best oil. Copperas and alum are among the minerals of Kentucky. Near Lexington are found curious sepulchres full of human skeletons. It has been asserted, that a man, in or near Lexington, having dug five or six feet below the surface of the ground, came to a large flat stone, under which was a well of common depth, regularly and artificially stoned.

HISTORY.] Though the war which took place between England and France in the year 1755, terminated so gloriously for Great Britain, and securely for the then colonies, still we remained ignorant of the whole of the fine country lying between the high hills, which rise from Great Sandy river, approximate the Allegany Mountain, and extending down the Ohio to its confluence with the Mississippi, and back to those ridges of mountains which traverse America in a S. W. by W. direction, until they are lost in the flat lands of West Florida. However, certain men, called Long Hunters, from Virginia and North Carolina, by penetrating these mountains, (which ramify into a country 200 miles over from E. to W. called the wilderness,) were fascinated with the beauty and luxuriance of the country on the western side.

A grant had been sold by the Six Nations of Indians to some British commissioners at Fort Stanwix in 1768, which comprehended this country, and which afforded the Americans a pretext for a right to settle it; but those Indian natives who were not concerned in the grant, became dissatisfied with the prospect of a settlement which might become so dangerous a thorn in their side, and committed some massacres upon the first explorers of the country. However, after the expedition of Lord Dunmore in 1774, and the battle at the mouth of the Great Kanlaway, between the army of Colonel Lewis and the confederated tribes of Indians, they were in some measure quiet. The Assembly of Virginia began now to encourage the peopling that district of country called Kentucky, from the name of a river which runs nearly through the middle of it. This encouragement consisted in offering 400 acres of land to every person who engaged to build a cabin, clear a piece of land, and produce a crop of Indian corn. This was called a settlement right. Some hundreds of these settlements were made; but, in the mean time, Mr. Richard Henderson, of North Carolina, a man of no inconsiderable abilities, and more enterprise, had obtained a grant from the Cherokee tribe of Indians for this same tract of country; and though it was contrary to the laws of the land for any private citizen to make purchases of the Indians, still Mr. Henderson persevered in his intention of establishing a colony of his own. He actually took possession of the country, with many of his followers, where he remained pretty quiet, making very little improvement, Virginia being at that time entirely occupied with the war, which had commenced between Great Britain and the confederated States. Most of the young men from the back settlements of Virginia and Pennsylvania, who would have migrated to this country, having engaged in the war, formed that body of men, called Rifle-men; which not only checked the growth of the settlement, but so dried up the sources of emigration, that it was near being annihilated by the fury of the savages.

The

The legality of Mr. Henderson's claim was investigated by the State of Virginia in 1781; and though there could be no sort of equity in it, he having acted in contempt of the State, the legislature, to avoid feuds or disturbances, (for Henderson still had influence) agreed, as an indemnification for the expense and trouble he had been at, that he should be allowed a tract of country 12 miles square, lying in the forks of the Ohio and Green rivers: a tract of his own chusing.

Virginia gave farther rewards and encouragements at this time to the first settlers, for the perils they had undergone in the establishment of their settlement, of a tract of 1000 acres, called a pre-emption right, to be laid off adjoining to the settlement of 400 acres, the grantee only paying office-fecs for the same. After this period, (i. e. 1781) a land office was opened by the State, granting warrants for any quantity of unlocated land, upon condition of certain sums of the depreciated continental currency being paid into the treasure, at so much for 100 acres. The great plenty and little value of this money soon caused the whole country to be located, which was one of the material causes of its rapid population.

It was necessary, in the management of this business, that care should be taken to prevent that perplexity and litigation, which the vague manner in which that business was executed in many instances would necessarily produce. For this purpose, three principal surveyors were appointed, who were to lay or cause to be laid off, by their deputies, the different locations within the limits of their districts: this being done, and recorded in the office, the original survey was sent to the deputy register's office, there to be recorded; from which it was sent to the principal register's office at Richmond, the seat of government, there to remain twelve months, in order that any person having a claim, by virtue of a prior location, might have an opportunity to enter a caveat, and prevent a surreptitious grant from issuing. Commissioners were also sent to adjust the claims of settlement and pre-emption rights; by which means order was preserved, and the government of a district of country, detached, and separated at that time more than 200 miles from any other settled country.

The years 1783 and 1784 brought out vast numbers of emigrants from all parts of America, particularly the latter year, when it was supposed that in Kentucky alone, not less than 12,000 souls became settlers; several Europeans from France, England, and Ireland, were among the number. In 1783, 1784, and 1785, great part of the country was surveyed and patented, and the people in the interior settlements pursued their business in as much quiet and safety as they could have done in any part of Europe. Court-houses were built in the different counties, and roads were opened for carriages, which seven years before had not been seen in the country. The only roads hitherto were for single horses.

In 1785, the district had grown so considerable from the great number of emigrants which had arrived, and that respectability which it had acquired produced a disposition in the inhabitants to become an independent State, and to be admitted as another link in the great federal chain. A convention was immediately formed by sending deputies from the different counties, who met at Danville, for the purpose of taking the matter into consideration; when it was determined, after some debating, to petition Virginia for that purpose. However, this business was procrastinated; for finding, though they might separate whenever they chose, yet that it was optional with the legislature of Virginia to recommend them to be taken into the federal government (which they were not likely to do, and which it was certain could not be done without,) they were content to remain as they were for that time.

The

The federal government in the course of the year 1785, undertook to lay off the country west of the Ohio, in such manner as would answer the purpose of selling the land, and settling the country; but, owing to a variety of causes, their progress was very slow. However, some land was surveyed in 1786 and 1787, and in the latter year a settlement was formed upon the Muskingum, which may be looked upon as the commencement of the American settlements upon the western side of the Ohio. In 1788 and 1789, some farther surveying was done; but little since has been transacted in those parts, except wars between the Indians and the settlers.

NORTH CAROLINA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.		Sq. Miles.
Length 300	} between { 1° and 6° 30' W. Long. 33° 50' and 36° 30' N. Lat. }	} 34,000
Breadth 120		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Virginia; east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by South Carolina and Georgia; west, by a chain of mountains a few miles to the westward of the Great Appalachian Mountain. This chain of mountains, taking the whole for a part, has occasionally been called the Great Iron Mountain. All that vast country which lies on the west of the Iron Mountain, was surrendered to the United States by the State of North Carolina in the year 1789. It has since been erected into a separate government, commonly called the Territory South of Ohio, or the Tennessee government.*

CIVIL DIVISIONS.] This State is divided into eight districts, which are subdivided into 54 counties, as follows:

* The charter limits of North Carolina are a line, beginning on the sea side, at a cedar stake, at or near the mouth of a little river, (being the southern extremity of Brunswick county) and running thence a north-west course through the boundary-house, in lat. 33° 56' to lat. 35°, and on that parallel west as far as is mentioned in the charter of K. Charles II. to the original proprietors of Carolina, viz. to the South Sea. Their northern line begins on the sea-coast in lat. 36° 30', and runs due west to the termination of the southern line. This line strikes the Mississippi 15 miles below the mouth of the Ohio. These limits were ascertained and confirmed agreeably to an order of George II. in council, in the year —. Great Britain, by the treaty of 1763, which was made with France and Spain, surrendered her claim to all the territory westward of the Mississippi; and those nations, by the same treaty, granted to Great Britain the free navigation of the Mississippi. By the treaty of 1783, between Spain and Great Britain, his Catholic Majesty expressly confirms the former treaty of 1763; except such parts as are there excepted; consequently he confirms to Great Britain the navigation of the Mississippi; and Great Britain, on her part, yields to the United States her entire right to the navigation of the Mississippi. But since Spain now claims the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi, which she had formerly surrendered, it is very probable that the United States, to whom North Carolina has ceded her western territory, may claim the lands on the west side of the Mississippi, which were within the original charter bounds of that State.

TABLE.

Counties.	Districts.	Counties.	Districts.	
These 3 districts are on the sea-coast, extending from Virginia line southward to S. Carolina. EDENTON. 9 counties, 53,770 inhabitants. Chief town, Edenton. WILMINGTON. 5 counties, 26,035 inhabitants. Chief town, Wilmington. NEWBERN. 9 counties, 55,540 inhabitants. Chief town, Newbern.	Chowan Currituck Camden Pasquotank Perquimins Gates Hertford Bertie Tyrrrel N. Hanover Brunswick Duplin Bladen Onslow Craven Beaufort Carteret Johnston Pitt Dobbs Wayne Hyde Jones	HALIFAX. 7 counties, 64,630 inhabitants. Chief town, Halifax HILLSBOROUGH. 6 counties, 59,983 inhabitants. Chief town, Hillsborough SALISBURY. 8 counties, 66,480 inhabitants. Chief town, Salisbury. MORGAN. 4 counties, 33,293 inhabitants. FAYETTE. 6 counties, 34,020 inhabitants. Chief town, Fayetteville.	Halifax Northampton Martin Edgecomb Warren Franklin Nash Orange Chatham Granville Caswell Wake Randolf Rowan Mecklenburgh Rockingham Iredell Surry Montgomery Stokes Guilford Burke Ruthford Lincoln Wilkes Cumberland Moore Richmond Robison Sampson Anson.	
	These 5 districts, beginning on the Virginia line, cover the whole State west of the 3 maritime districts before mentioned; and the greater part of them extend quite across the State from N. to S.			

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RIVERS.] Chowan river is formed by the confluence of three rivers, viz. the Meherrin, Nottaway, and Black rivers; all of which rise in Virginia. It falls into the north-west corner of Albemarle Sound, and is three miles wide at its mouth, but narrows fast as you ascend it.

Roanoke is a long rapid river, formed by two principal branches, Staunton river, which rises in Virginia, and Dan river, which rises in North Carolina. The low lands on this river are subject to inundations. It is navigable only for shallops, nor for thence, but about 60 or 70 miles, on account of falls, which in a great measure obstruct the water communication with the back country. It empties, by several mouths, into the south-west end of Albemarle Sound. The planters, on the banks of this river, are supposed to be the wealthiest in North Carolina. One of them, it is said, raises about 3000 barrels of corn, and 4000 bushels of peas, annually.

Cushaw is a small river, which empties into Albemarle Sound between Chowan and the Roanoke.

Pamlico or Tar river opens into Pamlico sound. Its course is from north-west to south-east. It is navigable for vessels drawing nine feet water to the town of Washington, about forty miles from its mouth; and for scows or flats, carrying thirty or forty hogheads, fifty miles further, to the town of Tarborough. Beyond this place the river is inconsiderable and is not navigable.

Neus river empties into Pamlico sound below Newbern. It is navigable for sea vessels about twelve miles above the town of Newbern; for scows fifty miles, and for small boats two hundred miles.

Trent river, from the south-west, falls into the Neus at Newbern. It is navigable for sea vessels about twelve miles above the town, and for boats thirty.

There are several other rivers of less note, among which are the Pasquotank, Perquimins, Little river, Alligator, &c. which discharge themselves into Albemarle sound. All the rivers in North Carolina, and, it may be added, in South Carolina, Georgia, and the Floridas, which empty into the Atlantic ocean, are navigable by any vessel that can pass the bar at their mouth. While the watercourses continue wide enough for vessels to turn round, there is generally a sufficient depth of water for them to proceed.

Cape Fear, more properly Clarendon river, opens into the sea at Cape Fear, in about latitude $33^{\circ} 45'$. As you ascend it, you pass Brunswick on the left, and Wilmington on the right. The river then divides into north-east and north-west branches, as they are called. It is navigable for large vessels to Wilmington, and for boats to Fayetteville, near ninety miles further. This river affords the best navigation in North Carolina. Yadkin river rises in this State, and running south-eastwardly, crosses into South Carolina, where it takes the name of Pedee, and passes to sea below Georgetown.

This State would be much more valuable, were it not that the rivers are barred at their mouths, and the coast furnishes no good harbours. These circumstances will prevent the State from building large ships, for which they have an abundance of excellent timber. Several causes have been assigned for all the harbours and rivers being barred, south of the Chesapeake. Some suppose the bars are formed by the current of the long rivers throwing up the sands, where their rapidity terminates; others say that a bank is thrown up by the Gulf Stream, which runs near these shores.

The banks of the rivers in this, and the other neighbouring States, often overflow after great rains; which does much damage to the plantations. A gentleman on the spot asserts, that he has seen the water thirty feet below the banks of the river, just after it had been ten feet above them. This is owing to the narrowness of the mouths of the rivers, which do not afford a sufficient channel for the waters, accumulating every mile, to discharge themselves into the ocean.

SOUNDS, CAPES, INLETS, &c.] Pamlico sound is a kind of lake or inland sea, from ten to twenty miles broad, and nearly one hundred miles in length. It is separated from the sea, in its whole length, by a beach of sand hardly a mile wide, generally covered with small trees or bushes. Through this bank are several small inlets, by which boats may pass. But Ocrecok inlet is the only one that will admit vessels of burden into the districts of Edenton and Newbern. This inlet is in latitude $35^{\circ} 10'$, and opens into Pamlico sound between Ocrecok island and Core bank; the land on the north is called Ocrecok; and on the south Portsmouth. A bar of hard sand crosses this inlet, on which, at low tide, there are fourteen feet water. Six miles within this bar is a hard sand shoal, called the Swash, lying across the channel. On each side

of the channel are dangerous shoals; sometimes dry. There is from eight to nine feet water at full tide, according to the winds, on the Swash. Common tides rise eighteen inches on the bar, and ten on the Swash. Between the bar and the Swash is good anchoring ground, called the Upper and Lower anchorages. Ships drawing ten feet water do not come farther than the first Anchorage, till lightened. Few mariners, though acquainted with the inlets, choose to bring in their own vessels, as the bar often shifts during their absence on a voyage. North of Pamlico sound, and communicating with it, is Albemarle sound, sixty miles in length, and from eight to twelve in breadth.

Core sound lies south of Pamlico, and communicates with it. These sounds are so large when compared with their inlets from the sea, that no tide can be perceived in any of the rivers which empty into them; nor is the water salt even in the mouths of these rivers.

Cape Hatteras is in latitude $35^{\circ} 15'$. At the time of Sir Walter Raleigh's approaching the American shores, the shoals in the vicinity of Hatteras were found to be extremely dangerous, and no vessels, in that latitude, ventured within seven leagues of the land. From a survey of the ancient drafts of this part of the coast, there can be no doubt but the fears of former navigators were not without foundation, as these shoals are laid down very large in extent, and in many places covered with not more than five or six feet water, at a great distance from the land.

The constant experience of the coasting trade of the United States demonstrates, either that the ancient drafts were purposely falsified in order to deter seamen from venturing too near a coast, with which they had as yet a very slender acquaintance, or (which is the most probable) that by the strong currents hereabouts, which are only counter currents of the Gulph Stream, the sands, which were originally heaped up in this part of the ocean by some ancient convulsion of nature, have been gradually wearing away, and diminishing to what we find them to be at this time.

At present the out shoals, which lie about fourteen miles south-west of the Cape, are but of five or six acres extent, and where they are really dangerous to vessels of moderate draught, not more than half that number of acres. On the shoalest part of these is, at low water, about ten feet, and here at times the ocean breaks in a tremendous manner, spouting, as it were, to the clouds, from the violent agitations of the Gulf Stream, which touches the eastern edge of the banks, from whence the declivity is sudden, that is to say, from ten fathoms to no soundings. On the spot above-mentioned, which is firm sand, it has been the lot of many a good vessel to strike, in a gale of wind, and to go to pieces. In moderate weather, however, these shoals may be passed over, if necessary, at full tide, without much danger, by vessels not drawing more than eight, nine, or ten feet water.

From this bank, which was formerly of vast extent, and called the *Full Moon Shoal*, a ridge runs the whole distance to the Cape, about a north-west course: this ridge, which is about half a mile wide, has on it at low tide generally ten, eleven, and twelve feet water, with gaps at equal intervals, affording good channels of about fifteen or sixteen feet water. The most noted of these channels, and most used by coasting vessels, is about one mile and a half from the land, and may easily be known by a range of breakers which are always seen on the west side, and a breaker head or two on the eastern side, which, however, are not so constant, only appearing when the sea is considerably agitated. This channel is at least two and a half miles wide, and might at full sea be safely passed by the largest ships. These, however, rarely attempt it. The common tides swell about six feet, and always come from the south-east.—A little north

north of the Cape is good anchoring in four or five fathoms, and with the wind to the westward, a boat may land in safety, and even bring off casks of *fresh water*, plenty of which is *to be found every where on the beach, by digging a foot or two, and putting a barrel into the sand.*

Cape Lookout is south of Cape Hatteras, opposite Core sound, and has already been mentioned as having had an excellent harbour entirely filled up with land since the year 1777.

Cape Fear is remarkable for a dangerous shoal called, from its form, the Frying pan. This shoal lies at the entrance of Cape Fear river, the south part of it, six miles from Cape Fear pitch, in latitude $33^{\circ} 32'$.

SWAMPS.] There are two swamps that have been called *Dismal*.

Great Dismal is on the dividing line between Virginia and North Carolina. It is chiefly owned by two companies. The Virginia company, of whom the President of the United States is one, owns 100,000 acres. The North Carolina company owns 40,000 acres. In the midst of this Dismal there is a lake about seven miles long, called Drummond's pond. The waters of that lake in rainy seasons discharge themselves to the southward into Pasquetank of North Carolina, and to the north and eastward into the branches of the Nansemond, Elizabeth river, and a river which runs into Currituck sound; a navigable canal is to be dug from the head of Pasquetank to the head of Elizabeth river in Virginia, the distance about fourteen miles. This canal will pass about a mile to the eastward of Drummond's pond, and will receive water from that lake: to pass through the lake would not be safe for low-sided vessels. The company by whom this canal is to be cut, have been incorporated by the concurring laws of Virginia, and North Carolina. In September, 1791, the subscription being nearly full, the company chose their directors, and other officers. By the canal the exports of Norfolk must be greatly increased.

The other Dismal is in Currituck county on the south side of Albemarle sound. This Dismal had not drawn the public attention as an object of importance before the end of the late war, at which time it was chiefly taken up. It is now supposed to contain one of the most valuable rice estates in America. In the midst of this Dismal there is a lake of about eleven miles long, and seven miles broad. In the year 1785, or 1786, Josiah Collins, Esq. of Edenton, in company with Messrs. Allen and Dickinson of that place, having taken up near 100,000 acres of land round the lake, resolving to make a navigable canal from the lake to the head of Skuppernong river: the distance five and a half miles. This canal, twenty feet wide, was finished in 1790, and the company in 1791 raised above one hundred and twenty acres of rice on the margin. The natural channel by which the lake used to discharge its waters is now stopped, and the waters pass off by the canal. About five hundred yards from the lake, the company have erected several saw mills. The water in the lake is higher than the surface of the ground for about half a mile from the lake on both sides of the canal; whence it follows, that the company can at any time lay under water about ten thousand acres of a rich swamp, which proves admirably fitted for rice.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Newbern, Edenton, Wilmington, Halifax, Hillsborough, Salisbury, and Fayetteville, each in their turns have been the seat of the General Assembly. At present they have no capital. According to the constitution of this State, the General Assemblies are to meet at any place they think fit on their own adjournments. The effect of this power was such as might be expected, in a state where there is no very large city or town nearly central; it was the source of constant intrigue and disquietude. The assembly seldom sat twice in succession in the same place.

place. The public officers were scattered over every part of the country. You could seldom visit the governor, the secretary, the treasurer, or the comptroller, in less riding than two or three hundred miles. Hence records were lost, accounts were badly kept, and the State from that single misfortune is supposed to have lost more than a million of dollars. It was equally clear to all parties that the government should not be itinerant, and the convention which met in the year 1788, to consider of the new federal constitution according to their instructions, took this part of their own constitution into their consideration, and by a very small majority resolved that the seat of government should be fixed at some place to be agreed on by commissioners, within ten miles of Wake court house. This is a healthy and central situation. But an act of the legislature became necessary to give effect to this ordinance, and in subsequent assemblies, there has generally been a similar majority, that is to say, a majority of one or two to oppose the ordinance. The profits that might arise to a few publicans and shopkeepers at some other town in which the Assembly might meet, occasioned more activity and procured more votes than the patriotic desire of terminating disputes and securing a quiet, orderly, and good government. For the honour of reason, by which we should be governed rather than by passion, it is to be wished that our legislatures, in similar circumstances, had not acted in a similar manner.

The General Assembly of the State, at their session in December, 1791, passed a law for carrying the ordinance into effect, and appropriated 10,000*l.* towards erecting public buildings.

NEWBERN is the largest town in the State. It stands on a flat, sandy point of land, formed by the confluence of the rivers Neus on the north, and Trent on the south. Opposite the town, the Neus is about a mile and a half, and the Trent three quarters of a mile wide. The town contains about four hundred houses,* all built of wood, excepting the palace, the church, the gaol, and two dwelling houses, which are of brick. The palace is a building erected by the province before the revolution, and was formerly the residence of the governors. It is large and elegant, two stories high, with two wings for offices, a little advanced in front towards the town; these wings are connected with the principal building by a circular arcade. This once handsome and well-furnished building is now much out of repair. One of the halls is used for a dancing, and another for a school-room; which are the only present uses of this palace. The arms of the king of Great Britain still appear in a pediment in front of the building. The Episcopal church is a small brick building, with a bell. It is the only house for public worship in the place. A rum distillery has lately been erected in this town. It is the county town of Craven county, and has a court house and gaol. The court house is raised on brick arches so as to render the lower part a convenient market place; but the principal marketing is done with the people in their canoes and boats at the river side.

EDENTON is situated on the north side of Albemarle sound; and has about one hundred and fifty indifferent wood houses, and a few handsome buildings. It has a brick church for Episcopalians, which for many years has been much neglected, and serves only to shew that the people once had a regard, at least, for the externals of religion. Its local situation is advantageous for trade, but not for health. It is the county town of Chowan county, and has a court house and gaol. In or near the town lived the proprietary, and the first of the royal governors.

* In September 1791, near one third part of this town was consumed by fire.

WILMINGTON is a town of about one hundred and eighty houses, situated on the east side of the eastern branch of Cape Fear or Clarendon river, thirty-four miles from the sea. The course of the river, as it passes by the town, is from north to south, and is about one hundred and fifty yards wide.

In 1786 a fire broke out, supposed to have been kindled by negroes, and consumed about twenty-five or thirty houses. The town is rebuilding slowly.

HILLSBOROUGH is an inland town, situated in a high, healthy, and fertile country, one hundred and eighty miles north of the west from Newbern. It is settled by about sixty or seventy families.

SALISBURY is agreeably situated, about five miles from Yadkin river, and contains about ninety dwelling houses.

HALIFAX is a pretty town, and stands on the western bank of the Roanoke, about six miles below the falls, and has about thirty or forty dwelling houses.

FAYETTEVILLE stands on the west side of Clarendon, commonly called Cape Fear river, and about a mile from its banks. It is well-built on both sides of a creek, from which the town was formerly called Cross Creek. Two small creeks unite near the town, and an island, just below the junction, divides the creek. Some person took it into his head that the creeks crossed each other without mixing their waters; and the strangeness or improbability of the thing, as in many other cases, seems to have been the reason, why it was believed. Since the peace, this town has flourished, but a considerable part of it was burnt in 1792. It is situated on a settlement of Scotch Highlanders.

WASHINGTON is situated in the county of Beaufort, on the north side of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 30'$, distant from Ocrecok inlet ninety miles. From this town is exported tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, Indian corn, peas, beans, pitch, tar, turpentine, rosin, &c. and pine boards, shingles, and oak staves. About one hundred and thirty vessels enter annually at the custom house in this town.

GREENEVILLE, so-called after Major-general Nathaniel Greene, is situated in Pitt county, on the south bank of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 35'$, distant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and ten miles. At this town there is an academy established, called the Pitt Academy.

TARBOROUGH is situated in the county of Edgecomb, on the south bank of Tar river, in latitude $35^{\circ} 45'$, distant from Ocrecok inlet one hundred and forty miles. At this town large quantities of tobacco of the Petersburg quality, pork, beef, and Indian corn, are collected for exportation.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] North Carolina, in its whole width, for sixty miles from the sea, is a dead level. A great proportion of this tract lies in forest, and is barren. On the banks of some of the rivers, particularly of the Roanoke, the land is fertile and good. Interpersed through the other parts are glades of rich swamp, and ridges of oak land, of a black, fertile soil. In all this champaign country, marine productions are found by digging eighteen or twenty feet below the surface of the ground. The sea coast, the sounds, inlets, and the lower parts of the rivers, have uniformly a muddy, soft bottom. Sixty or eighty miles from the sea, the country rises into hills and mountains, as described under this head in South Carolina and Georgia.

Wheat, rye, barley, oats, and flax, grow well in the back hilly country. Indian corn and pulse of all kinds in all parts. Ground peas run on the surface of the earth, and are covered by hand with a light mould, and the pods grow under ground: they are eaten raw or roasted, and taste much like a hazlenut. Cotton and hemp are also confi-

considerably cultivated here, and might be raised in much greater plenty. The cotton is planted yearly: the stalk dies with the frost. The labour of one man will produce one thousand pounds in the seeds, or two hundred and fifty fit for manufacturing. The country is generally friendly to the raising of sheep, which yield from three-quarters of a pound to two pounds and a half of wool, which is short and not very fine.

It is no uncommon thing for the farmer to mark from five hundred to one thousand calves in a year. No farther attention is paid to them till they are fit for slaughter; then they are taken up, killed, barrelled, and sent to the West India market. Their pork is raised with as little trouble, large quantities of which, before the war, were sent to New England, particularly to Boston and Salem.

TRADE.] A great proportion of the produce of the back country, consisting of tobacco, wheat, Indian corn, &c. is carried to market in South Carolina and Virginia. The southern interior countries, carry their produce to Charlestown; and the northern to Petersburg in Virginia. The exports from the lower parts of the State are tar, pitch, turpentine, rosin, Indian corn, boards, scantling, staves, shingles, furs, tobacco, pork, lard, tallow, bees-wax, myrtle-wax, and a few other articles, amounting in the year, ending in September 30th, 1791, to 524,548 dollars. Their trade is chiefly with the West Indies and the northern States. From the latter they receive flour, cheese, cyder, apples, potatoes, iron wares, cabinet wares, hats, and dry goods of all kinds, imported from Great Britain, France, and Holland, teas, &c. From the West Indies, rum, sugar, and coffee.

CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.] In the flat country, near the sea coast, the inhabitants, during the summer and autumn, are subject to intermitting fevers, which often prove fatal, as bilious or nervous symptoms prevail. These fevers are seldom immediately dangerous to the natives who are temperate, or to strangers who are prudent. They, however, if suffered to continue for any length of time, bring on other disorders, which greatly impair the natural vigor of the mind, debilitate the constitution, and terminate in death. The countenances of the inhabitants during these seasons, have generally a pale yellowish cast, occasioned by the prevalence of bilious symptoms. They have very little of the bloom and freshness of the people in the northern States.

It has been observed that more of the inhabitants, of the men especially, die during the winter by pleurisy and peripneumonies, than during the warm months by bilious complaints. These pleurisy are brought on by intemperance, and by an imprudent exposure to the weather. Were the inhabitants cautious and prudent in these respects, it is alledged by their physicians, that they might in general escape the danger of these fatal diseases. The use of flannel next to the skin during the winter, is reckoned an excellent preventative of the diseases incident to this climate. The western hilly parts of the State are as healthy as any of the United States. That country is fertile, full of springs and rivulets of pure water. The air there is serene a great part of the year, and the inhabitants live to old age, which cannot so generally be said of the inhabitants of the flat country. Though the days in summer are extremely hot, the nights are cool and refreshing. Autumn is very pleasant, both in regard to the temperature and serenity of the weather, and the richness and variety of the vegetable productions which the season affords. The winters are so mild in some years, that autumn may be said to continue till spring. Wheat harvest is the beginning of June, and that of Indian corn early in September.

[NATURAL HISTORY, MANUFACTURES, &c.] The large natural growth of the plains in the low country is almost universally pitch pine, which is a tall, handsome tree, far superior to the pitch pine of the northern States. This tree may be called the staple commodity of North Carolina. It affords pitch, tar, turpentine, and various kinds of lumber, which together constitute at least one half of the exports of this State. This pine is of two kinds, the common and the long-leaved. The latter has a leaf shaped like other pines, but is nearly half a yard in length, hanging in large clusters. No country produces finer white and red oak for staves. The swamps abound with cypress and bay trees. The latter is an evergreen, and is food for the cattle in the winter. The leaves are shaped like those of the peach tree, but larger. The most common kinds of timber in the back country are, oak, walnut, and pine. A species of oak grows in the moist, sandy soil, called black jack. It seldom grows larger than eight or nine inches diameter. It is worthy of remark, that the trees in the low country, near the sea coast, are loaded with vast quantities of a long species of moss, which, by absorbing the noxious vapour that is exhaled from stagnated waters, contributes much, it is supposed, to the healthiness of the climate. This hypothesis is confirmed by experience, since it is commonly observed, that the country is much less healthy for a few years after having been cleared, than while in a state of nature.

The Mistletoe is common in the back country. This is a shrub which differs in kind, perhaps, from all others. It never grows out of the earth, but on the tops of trees. The roots (if they may be so called) run under the bark of the tree, and incorporate with the wood. It is an evergreen, resembling the garden box wood.

The principal wild fruits are plums, grapes, strawberries, and blackberries.

The country is generally covered with herbage of various kinds, and a species of wild grass. It abounds with medicinal plants and roots; among others are the ginseng; Virginia snake root; Seneca snake root, an herb of the emetic kind, like epiacuana; Lyon's heart, which is a sovereign remedy for the bite of a serpent. A species of the sensitive plant is also found here; it is a sort of brier, the stalk of which dies with the frost, but the root lives through the winter, and shoots again in the spring. The lightest touch of a leaf causes it to turn and cling close to the stalk. Although it so easily takes the alarm, and apparently shrinks from danger, in the space of two minutes after it is touched, it perfectly recovers its former situation. The mucipula veneris is also found here. The rich bottoms are overgrown with canes. The leaves are green all the winter, and afford an excellent food for cattle. They are of a sweetish taste, like the stalks of green corn, which they in many respects resemble.

There is a long ridge of lime-stone, which, extending in a south-westerly direction, crosses the whole State of North Carolina. It crosses Dan river to the westward of the Sawto towns, crosses the Yadkin about fifty miles north-west from Salisbury, and thence proceeds by the way of King's mountain to the southern States. No lime-stone has been found to the eastward of that ridge. A species of rock has been found in several places, of which lime is made, which is obviously a concretion of marine shells. The State is traversed nearly in the same direction by another stratum of rocks which passes near Warrenton. It is a circumstance worthy of observation that the springs of water on the north-west side of the ridge are apt to fail in dry seasons; on the south-west side they seldom fail.

The river Yadkin, where it passes Salisbury, is about four hundred yards broad, but it is reduced between two hills, about twenty-five miles to the southward of that town, to the width of eighty or one hundred feet. For two miles it is narrow and rapid, but the most narrow and most rapid part is not above half a mile in length.

In this narrow part, shad are caught in the spring of the year, by hoop nets, in the eddies, as fast as the strongest men are able to throw them out. Perhaps there is not in the United States a more eligible situation for a large manufacturing town. Boats with forty or fifty hogheads pass easily from these rapids to Georgetown.

The late war, by which North Carolina was greatly convulsed, put a stop to several iron works. At present there are four or five furnaces in the State that are in blast, and a proportionable number of forges. There is one in Guilford county, one in Surry, and one in Wilkes, all on the Yadkin; and one in Lincoln. The quality of the iron is excellent.

One paper mill has lately been erected at Salem, by the Moravians, to great advantage.

RELIGION.] The western parts of this State, which have been settled within the last forty years, are chiefly inhabited by Presbyterians from Pennsylvania, the descendants of people from the north of Ireland, and are exceedingly attached to the doctrines, discipline, and usages of the church of Scotland. They are a regular industrious people. Almost all the inhabitants between the Catawba and Yadkin rivers are of this denomination, and they are in general well supplied with a sensible and learned ministry. There are interspersed some settlements of Germans, both Lutherans and Calvinists, but they have very few ministers.

The Moravians have several flourishing settlements in this State. In 1751, they purchased of Lord Granville one hundred thousand acres of land, between Dan and Yadkin rivers, about ten miles south of Pilot mountain, in Surry county, and called it Wachovia, after an estate of Count Zinzendorf, in Austria. In 1755, this tract, by an act of Assembly, was made a separate parish by the name of Dobb's parish. The first settlement, called Bethabara, was begun in 1753, by a number of the brethren from Pennsylvania, in a very wild, uninhabited country, which, from that time, began to be rapidly settled by farmers from the middle States.

In 1759, Bethany, a regular village, was laid out and settled. In 1766, Salem, which is now the principal settlement, and nearly in the center of Wachovia, was settled by a collection of tradesmen. The same constitution and regulations are established here, as in other regular settlements of the united brethren. Besides, there are in Wachovia three churches, one in Friedland, one in Friedburg, and another at Hope, each of which has a minister of the brethren's church. These people, by their industry and attention to various branches of manufacture, are very useful to the country around them.

The Friends or Quakers have a settlement in New Garden, in Guilford county, and several congregations at Perquimins and Pasquetank. The Methodists and Baptists are numerous and increasing. Besides the denominations already mentioned, there is a very numerous body of people in this, and in all the southern States, who cannot properly be classed with any sect of Christians, having never made any profession of Christianity.

The inhabitants of Wilmington, Newbern, Edenton, and Halifax districts, making about three-fifths of the State, once professed themselves of the episcopal church: the clergy in these districts were chiefly missionaries, and in forming their political attachments, at the commencement of the late war, personal safety, or real interest, or perhaps a conviction of the impolicy of opposing Great Britain, from whence they received their salaries, induced them almost universally to declare themselves in favour of the British government, and to emigrate. There may be one or two of the original clergy remaining, but at present they have no particular pastoral charge; indeed the

the inhabitants in the districts above mentioned seem now to be making the experiment, whether Christianity can exist long in a country where there is no visible Christian church: the Baptists and Methodists have sent a number of missionary preachers into these districts, and some of them have pretty large congregations; it is not improbable, that one or the other of these denominations, and perhaps both, may acquire consistency, and establish permanent churches.

COLLEGES AND ACADEMIES.] The General Assembly of North Carolina, in December, 1789, passed a law incorporating forty gentlemen, five from each district, as trustees of the university of North Carolina; to this university they gave, by a subsequent law, all the debts due to the State from sheriffs or other holders of public money, and which had been due before the year 1783; they also gave it all escheated property within the State. Whenever the trustees shall have collected a sufficient sum of the old debts, or from the sale of escheated property, the value of which is considerable, to pay the expense of erecting buildings, they are to fix on a proper place and proceed to finish the buildings: a considerable quantity of land has already been given to the university. The General Assembly, in December, 1791, loaned 5000*l.* to the trustees, to enable them to proceed immediately with their buildings.

There is a very good academy at Warrenton, another at Williamsborough in Granville, and three or four others in the State, of considerable note.

POPULATION, CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] From the marshal's return it appears, that the number of inhabitants, in the year 1791, was 393,751, of whom 293,179 were citizens: perhaps there are few instances of such a rapid increase of inhabitants as we find in this State; in the year 1710, we are well assured, that the number of inhabitants in North Carolina did not exceed 6000: this extraordinary increase must arise, in a great measure, from the migration of inhabitants from other States, or from distant countries; but this will not fully account for the present state of population in North Carolina. By examining the return, we find there are 147,494 white male inhabitants; we also find, that the number of males under sixteen years exceeds the number above sixteen by 7518, which is about one-nineteenth of the whole. This is a very remarkable fact, as it respects the increase of the human species. We find a small difference in the States of Delaware, Virginia, and Georgia, in favour of those under sixteen. The difference in Kentucky is similar to that in North Carolina. In the other States, the number above sixteen is greatest, and in the several kingdoms in Europe, as far as our information reaches, the inhabitants above sixteen are universally much more numerous than those under that age. The great difference that appears in North Carolina in favour of children, cannot be explained by supposing that the climate is sickly, for we know that such climates are equally fatal to young and old. The idea too of a sickly climate does not accord with the prodigious increase of inhabitants in this State, nor with another fact, viz. that there is a considerable proportion of very old inhabitants in the State. To explain this we must observe, that the human species, and all other animals, are found to increase in proportion to the comforts of life, and the ease with which they can support their progeny. Remove the rigours of an inhospitable climate, and the more uniform dissuative to matrimony, the apprehended difficulty of supporting a family, and the human species would double, not in twenty but in fifteen years. In North Carolina, neither the cold of winter, nor the heat of summer, are in the back country at all disagreeable; land continues to be plenty and cheap; grain is raised with so much ease, and the trouble of providing for cattle in winter so trifling, that a man supports his family with half the labour that is required in the cold climates. Under these ad-

vantages, we are not to wonder that people in all ranks of life should marry very young; we have heard of grandmothers in that State who were not more than twenty-seven years old.

The North Carolinians are mostly planters, and live from half a mile to three and four miles from each other on their plantations; they have a plentiful country, no ready market for their produce, little intercourse with strangers, and a natural fondness for society, which induce them to be hospitable to travellers.

The general topics of conversation among the men, when cards, the bottle, and occurrences of the day do not intervene, are negroes, the prices of indigo, rice, tobacco, &c. They appear to have little taste for the sciences. Political inquiries and philosophical disquisitions are attended to but by a few men of genius and industry, and are too laborious for the minds of the people at large. Less attention and respect are paid to the women here, than in those parts of the United States where the inhabitants have made greater progress in the arts of civilized life; indeed it is a truth confirmed by observation, that in proportion to the advancement of civilization, in the same proportion will respect for the women be increased; so that the progress of civilization in countries, in states, in towns, and in families, may be marked by the degree of attention which is paid by husbands to their wives, and by the young men to the young women.

Temperance and industry are not to be reckoned among the virtues of the North Carolinians; the time which they waste in drinking, idling, and gambling, leaves them very little opportunity to improve their plantations or their minds; the improvement of the former is left to their overseers and negroes; the improvement of the latter is too often neglected. Were the time which is thus wasted, spent in cultivating the soil, and in treasuring up knowledge, they might be both wealthy and learned; for they have a productive country, and are by no means destitute of genius.

Time that is not employed in study or useful labour, in every country, is generally spent in hurtful or innocent exercises, according to the custom of the place, or the taste of the parties. The citizens of North Carolina, who are not better employed, spend their time in drinking, or gaming at cards and dice, in cock-fighting or horse-racing.

We are told, that a strange and very barbarous practice prevailed among the lower class of people, before the revolution, in the back parts of Virginia, North and South Carolinas, and Georgia; it was called *gouging*, and was neither more nor less than a man, when boxing, putting out the eye of his antagonist with his thumb. How quick, under a mild government, is the reformation of manners! We have lately been told, that in a particular county, where, at the quarterly court twenty years ago, a day seldom passed without ten or fifteen boxing matches, it is now a rare thing to hear of a fight.

North Carolina, as already observed, has had a rapid growth; in the year 1710 it contained but about 1200 fencible men; it is now, in point of numbers, the fourth State in the Union. During this amazing progress in population, which has been greatly aided by emigrations from Pennsylvania, Virginia, and other States, while each has been endeavouring to increase his fortune, the human mind, like an unweeded garden, has been suffered to shoot up in wild disorder. But when we consider, that, during the late revolution, this State produced many distinguished patriots and politicians, that she sent her thousands to the defence of Georgia and South Carolina, and gave occasional succours to Virginia; when we consider too the difficulties she has had to encounter from a mixture of inhabitants, collected from different

ferent parts, strangers to each other, and intent upon gain, we shall find many things worthy of praise in her general character.

CONSTITUTION.] By the constitution of this State, which was ratified in December, 1776, all legislative authority is vested in two distinct branches, both dependent on the people, viz. a Senate and House of Commons, which, when convened for business, are styled the General Assembly.

The senate is composed of representatives, one for each county, chosen annually by ballot.

The house of commons consists of representatives chosen in the same way, two for each county, and one for each of the towns of Edenton, Newbern, Wilmington, Salisbury, Hillsborough, Halifax, and Fayetteville.

The qualifications for a senator, are one year's residence immediately preceding his election in the county in which he is chosen, and 300 acres of land in fee.

A member of the house of commons must have usually resided in the county in which he is elected one year immediately preceding his election, and for six months shall have possessed, and continue to possess, in the county which he represents, not less than 100 acres of land in fee, or for the term of his own life.

A freeman of twenty-one years of age, who has been an inhabitant in the State twelve months immediately preceding the day of any election, and who had possessed a freehold of fifty acres of land within the county for six months next before, and at the day of election, is entitled to vote for a member of the senate.

All freemen of twenty-one years of age, who have been inhabitants of the State the year next before the election, and have paid public taxes, may vote for members of the house of commons.

The senate and house of commons, when convened, choose each their own speaker, and are judges of the qualifications and elections of their members: they jointly, by ballot, at their first meeting after each annual election, choose a governor for one year, who is not eligible to that office longer than three years, in six successive years, and who must possess a freehold of more than 1000l. and have been an inhabitant of the State above five years. They, in the same manner, and at the same time, elect seven persons to be a council of state for one year, to advise the governor in the execution of his office. They appoint a treasurer or treasurers for the State. They triennially choose a state secretary. They jointly appoint judges of the supreme courts of law and equity; judges of admiralty, and the attorney general, who are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. They prepare bills, which must be read three times in each house, and be signed by the speaker of both houses before they pass into laws.

Judges of the supreme court, members of the council, judges of admiralty, treasurers, secretaries, attorney-generals for the State, clerks of record, clergymen, persons denying the being of a God, the truth of the Protestant religion, or the divine authority of the Old and New Testament, receivers of public monies, whose accounts are unsettled, military officers in actual service, are all ineligible to a seat either in the senate or house of commons; justices of the peace, being recommended by the representatives, are commissioned by the governor, and hold their offices during good behaviour. The constitution allows of no religious establishment, the legislature are authorized to regulate entails so as to prevent perpetuities. A majority of both houses is necessary to do business.

HISTORY.] The history of North Carolina is less known than that of any of the other States; from the best accounts that history affords, the first permanent settle-

ment in North Carolina was made about the year 1710, by a number of Palatines from Germany, who had been reduced to circumstances of great indigence by a calamitous war. The proprietors of Carolina, knowing that the value of their lands depended on the strength of their settlements, determined to give every possible encouragement to such emigrants. Ships were accordingly provided for their transportation, and instructions were given to Governor Tynte, to allow 100 acres of land for every man, woman, and child, free of quit rents, for the first ten years; but at the expiration of that term, to pay one penny per acre annual rent for ever, according to the usages and customs of the province. Upon their arrival Governor Tynte granted them a tract of land in North Carolina, since called Albemarle and Bath precincts, where they settled, and flattered themselves with having found in the hideous wilderness, a happy retreat from the desolations of a war which then raged in Europe.

In the year 1712, a dangerous conspiracy was formed by the Coree and Tuscorora tribes of Indians, to murder and expel this infant colony. The foundation for this conspiracy is not known; probably they were offended at the encroachments upon their hunting ground. They managed their conspiracy with great cunning and profound secrecy. They surrounded their principal town with a breast work to secure their families. Here the warriors convened to the number of 1200. From this place of rendezvous they sent out small parties, by different roads, who entered the settlement under the mask of friendship. At the change of the full moon all of them had agreed to begin their murderous operations the same night. When the night came, they entered the houses of the planters, demanding provisions, and pretending to be offended, fell to murdering men, women, and children, without mercy or distinction. One hundred and thirty-seven settlers, among whom were a Swiss baron, and almost all the poor Palatines that had lately come into the country, were slaughtered the first night. Such was the secrecy and dispatch of the Indians in this expedition, that none knew what had befallen his neighbour until the barbarians had reached his own door. Some few, however, escaped, and gave the alarm. The militia assembled in arms, and kept watch day and night, until the news of the sad disaster had reached the province of South Carolina. Governor Craven lost no time in sending a force to their relief. The Assembly voted 4000*l.* for the service of the war. A body of 600 militia, under the command of Colonel Barnwell, and 366 Indians of different tribes, with different commanders, marched with great expedition through a hideous wilderness to their assistance. In their first encounter with the Indians they killed 300 and took 100 prisoners. After this defeat, the Tuscororas retreated to their fortified town, which was shortly after surrendered to Colonel Barnwell. In this expedition it was computed that near a thousand Tuscororas were killed, wounded, and taken. The remainder of the tribe soon after abandoned their country, and joined the Five Nations, with whom they have ever since remained. After this, the infant colony remained in peace, and continued to flourish under the general government of South Carolina till about the year 1729, when seven of the proprietors, for a valuable consideration, vested their property and jurisdiction in the crown, and the colony was erected into a separate province, by the name of North Carolina, and its presents limit established by an order of George II. From this period to the revolution in 1776, the history of North Carolina is unpublished, and of course unknown, except to those who have had access to the records of the province. Some of the most important events that have since taken place, have been already mentioned in the general history of the United States.

TERRITORY SOUTH OF OHIO,

OR THE TENNESSEE GOVERNMENT.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
Length 360 } between { 6° 20' and 16° 30' W. Longitude
Breadth 105 } { 35° and 36° 30' N. Latitude

BOUNDARIES.] THE Tennessee government, or the territory of the United States, south of the river Ohio, is that tract of country which was ceded to the United States by the State of North Carolina in the year 1789. It is bounded north, by Kentucky and part of Virginia; east, by the Stone, Yellow, Iron, and Bald mountains, which divides it from North Carolina; south, by South Carolina and Georgia; west, by the Mississippi.*

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] This extensive district is divided into the following counties:

WASHINGTON district.	Counties.	No. Inhabit.		MERO district.	Counties.	No. Inhabit.	
	Washington,	—	5872		Davidson,	—	3459
	Sullivan,	—	4447		Sumner,	—	2196
	Green,	—	7741		Tennessee,	—	1387
	Hawkins,	—	6970				
	South of French Broad,		3619		Total.		35691.

The above is according to the returns made by the governor of this territory in 1791. Owing to imperfect returns made to him, it does not comprehend the whole number of inhabitants. We have no *data* on which to calculate the probable deficiency. In 1788, the number of inhabitants were reckoned at about 40,000; they must have greatly increased since that period. In 1765, there were but about ten families settled west of the Kanhawa; so many had joined them in 1773, that the settlement west of the Kanhawa was erected into a county, and in 1776 subdivided into three counties.

The inhabitants of this district emigrated chiefly from Pennsylvania, that part of Virginia which lies west of the Blue Ridge. The ancestors of these people were generally of the Scotch nation, some of whom emigrated first to Ireland, and from thence to America. A few Germans and English are intermixed. The proportion of the whites to the black in this district, judging from the foregoing imperfect census, is as ten to one. In 1788, it was thought there were twenty white persons to one negro. The erection of this territory into a separate government, it is believed, will tend to lessen the negro population.

SOIL.] The farmers on Cumberland river, for the sake of describing their lands, distinguish them by first, second, and third quality. Land of the first quality will bear Indian corn or hemp, but it will not bear wheat without great reduction. Land of the second quality does not bear wheat to advantage until it has been reduced by two or three crops of corn, hemp, tobacco, or cotton. Land of the third quality bears every kind of grain that is usually sown on dry ground in the Atlantic States.

* About seven and a half millions of acres of this tract only has been yet purchased from the Indians.

It is agreed by all who have visited the Cumberland settlement, that 100 bushels of Indian corn are frequently gathered from an acre of their best land; sixty or seventy bushels from an acre is very common, but the farmer who expects to gather such a crop, must be careful, while the corn is soft, to guard it against bears and racoons. Wheat, barley, oats, rye, buckwheat, Indian corn, pease, beans, potatoes of both sorts, flax, hemp, tobacco, indigo, rice, and cotton, have already been planted in that settlement, and they all thrive in great perfection; the usual crop of cotton is 800 pounds to the acre; the staple is long and fine. It is alledged, however, that the lands on the small rivers that run into the Mississippi, have a decided preference to those on the Cumberland river, for the production of cotton and indigo. No experiments have been made on land near the Mississippi within the ceded territory; but there is a small settlement farther down the river, within the limits of the United States, on a similar soil, where the growth and quality of cotton is so remarkable, that its culture is more profitable than any other crop. The soil on those rivers is deep and light, having a small mixture of sand with a black earth; hence, as the planters alledge, it proves favourable to the culture of all kinds of roots, as well as of indigo and cotton.

CLIMATE.] Moderate and healthy. In the tract lying between the Great Island, as it is called, and the Kanhawa, the summers are remarkably cool, and the air rather moist. South-west of this, as far as the Indian towns, the climate is much warmer, and the soil better adapted to the productions of the southern States.

The diseases to which the adult inhabitants are most liable, are plurisies, rheumatisms, and rarely agues and fevers: so healthy have been the inhabitants, that from the first settlement of the country to 1788, not a single physician had settled among them. It is to the inhabitants a real advantage, that they are almost beyond the reach of those luxuries which are enjoyed, and those epidemical diseases which are consequently frequent, in populous towns on the sea coast. An inhabitant of this district writes, "Our physicians are, a fine climate, healthy, robust mothers and fathers, plain and plentiful diet, and enough of exercise: there is not a regular bred physician residing in the whole district."

RIVERS AND MOUNTAINS.] The Tennessee, called also the Cherokee, and absurdly the Hogohege river, is the largest branch of the Ohio; it rises in the mountains of Virginia, latitude 37°, and pursues a course of about 1000 miles south and south-west, nearly to latitude 34°, receiving from both sides a number of large tributary streams; it then wheels about to the north, in a circuitous course, and mingles with the Ohio, nearly sixty miles from its mouth: from its entrance into the Ohio, to the Muscle shoals, 250 miles, the current is very gentle, and the river deep enough, at all seasons, for the largest row boats: the Muscle shoals are about twenty miles in length. At this place the river spreads to the width of three miles, and forms a number of islands, and is of difficult passage, except when there is a swell in the river. From these shoals to the whirl or suck, the place where the river breaks through the Great Ridge, or Cumberland mountain, is 250 miles, the navigation all the way excellent.

The Cumberland mountain, in its whole extent, from the Great Kanhawa to the Tennessee, consists of the most stupendous piles of craggy rocks of any mountain in the western country; in several parts of it, for miles, it is inaccessible even to the Indians on foot; in one place particularly, near the summit of the mountain, there is a most remarkable ledge of rocks of about thirty miles in length and 200 feet thick, shewing a perpendicular face to the south-east more noble and grand than any artificial

ficial fortification in the known world, and apparently equal in point of regularity. Through this stupendous pile, according to a modern hypothesis, had the waters of all the upper branches of the Tennessee to force their way; the attempt would have been impracticable at any other place than the one mentioned for more than 100 miles eastwardly. Here then seems to have been the chasm, left by the Creator, to convey off those waters which must otherwise have overflowed, and rendered useless a vast tract of valuable country, encompassed within the mountains.

The *Whirl*, as it is called, is in about latitude 35° ; it is reckoned a greater curiosity than the bursting of the Patomak through the Blue Ridge, which is so inimitably described by Mr. Jefferson. The river, which a few miles above is half a mile wide, is here compressed to the width of about 100 yards; just as it enters the mountain, a large rock projects from the northern shore in an oblique direction, which renders the bed of the river still narrower, and causes a sudden bend; the water of the river is of course thrown with great rapidity against the southern shore, whence it abounds around the point of the rock and produces the whirl, which is about eighty yards in circumference. Canoes have often been carried into this whirl, and escaped by the dexterity of the rowers without damage. In less than a mile below the whirl, the river spreads into its common width, and, except Muscle Shoals, already mentioned, flows beautiful and placid till it mingles with the Ohio.

Six miles above the whirl are the Chiccamogga towns, on the banks of the river, and of a large creek of the same name; from these towns to the mouth of the Hiwassee is sixty miles by water, and about forty by land; this river is a south branch of the Tennessee, and navigable till it penetrates the mountains on its south side; up this river, in these mountains, a mine has been discovered and ore taken, from which, it is said, gold was extracted by an artist, while the British were in possession of Georgia: it is certain, but few Indians know the spot, and those who do are very anxious to keep it a secret: the gentleman who gave the author this information has been within view of the place. The mountain is very high and barren, and has several of the appearances described by mineralists. The discovery was made by means of the river's undermining the base of a large cliff or spur of the mountain, which occasioned a great column of the earth or rock to tumble into the river; this disrapture discovered the vein of yellow metal at a great depth. The climate, the fine springs, and fertile plains, render the banks of this river a most delightful place of settlement. From a branch of the Hiwassee, called Amoia, there is but a short portage to a branch of the Mobile, and the road all the distance firm and level.

Passing up the Tennessee, sixty miles from the mouth of the Hiwassee, you come to the mouth of Peleson or Clinch river, from the north, which is large and navigable for boats upwards of 200 miles, receiving in its course, besides inferior streams, Powell's river, which is nearly as large as the main river, and boatable 100 miles: this last-mentioned river runs through Powell's valley, an excellent tract of country abounding with fine springs.

From the Peleson to the junction of the Holstein and Tennessee is computed forty miles; this last is the branch which formerly gave its name to the main river, not from its size, but from its notoriety, having on its banks a vast number of Indian villages, and the chief town of the Cherokee Indians, called Chota, and was therefore called *Cherokee* river; but the name of Tennessee has of late obtained: it crosses the valley at nearly right angles with the mountains, and has on its banks a number of beautiful plains, which are chiefly improved as corn fields by the Indians. In 1788, the whites had advanced their settlements within ten miles of the Indian villages.

Forty miles from the Tennessee, up the Holstein branch, comes in Frank river, vulgarly called French Broad, four or five hundred yards wide; thence, pursuing the Holstein 200 miles, you come to Long Island, which is the highest navigation yet used; thence about 100 miles is the source of the river. One mile below Long Island comes in North Holstein, and 20 miles above it the Wattago; the former is 100 yards wide at its mouth, and, with a small expense, might be made navigable to Campbell's Salines, seventy miles farther up. On the banks of the Holstein are many mines of iron ore, of the best kind, some of which have been opened and worked to advantage, and enough might be made to supply the whole western country; and these mines are the more valuable, as there is said to be none of this ore near the Mississippi, and very little north of the Ohio. In the Tennessee and its upper branches are great numbers of fish, some of which are very large and of an excellent flavour.

The head waters of the great Kanhawa are in the western part of North Carolina, in the most eastern ridge of the Allegany or Appalachian mountains, and south of the 36th degree of latitude. Its head branches encircle those of the Holstein, from which they are separated by the Iron mountain, through which it passes, ten miles above the lead mines; thence steering its course along the foot of the Allegany mountain, until it receives Little river from the east, it turns to the north, which is its general course till it meets the Ohio. About 60 miles from Little river it receives Green Briar river from the east, which is the only considerable tributary stream in all that distance. About forty miles below the mouth of Green Briar river, (in Virginia) in the Kanhawa, is a remarkable cataraet. A large rock, a little elevated in the middle, crosses the bed of the river, over which the water shoots and falls about fifty feet perpendicularly, except at one side, where the descent is more gradual.

The Shawance, now called Cumberland river, of the southern branches of the Ohio, is next in size to the Tennessee, and extends eastwardly nearly as far, but runs a much more direct course; it is navigable for small craft as far as Nashville; from the south it receives Harper's, Coney, Obey's, and Clear Fork rivers; and from the north, Red and Rock Castle rivers, besides many smaller streams.

The land on the waters of Tennessee and Cumberland rivers is generally well timbered; in some places there are glades of rich land without timber, but these are not frequent nor large. The general growth is poplar, hickory, black walnut, buck eye, or the horse chestnut, sycamore, locust, and the sugar maple. The under growth, in many places, is cane fifteen or twenty feet high, so close together as to exclude all other plants; where the cane does not abound, we find red bud, wild plum, spice wood, red and white mulberry, ginseng, Virginia and Seneca snake root, angelica, sweet anise, ginger, and wild hops. The glades are covered with clover, wild rye, buffalo grass, and pea vine. On the hills, at the head of rivers, we find stately red cedars; many of these trees are four feet in diameter, and forty feet clear of limbs.

It would take a volume to describe particularly the mountains of this territory, above half of which is covered with those which are uninhabitable; some of these mountains, particularly Cumberland, or Great Laurel Ridge, are the most stupendous piles in the United States; they abound with ginseng and stone coal. Clinch mountain is south of these, in which Burk's Garden and Morris's Nob might be described as curiosities.

The Iron mountain, which constitutes the boundary between this district and North Carolina, extends from near the lead mines, on the Kanhawa, through the Cherokee county, to the south of Chota, and terminates near the sources of the Mobile. The caverns and cascades in these mountains are innumerable.

ANIMALS.] A few years since, this country abounded with large herds of wild cattle, improperly called buffaloes; but the improvident or ill-disposed among the first settlers, have destroyed multitudes of them out of mere wantonness; they are still to be found on some of the south branches of Cumberland river. Elk, or moose, are seen in many places, chiefly among the mountains. The deer are become comparatively scarce, so that no person makes a business of hunting them for their skins only. Enough of bears and wolves yet remain. Beavers and otters are caught in plenty in the upper branches of Cumberland and Kentucky rivers.

They have pheasants, partridges, or quails, and turkies in abundance through the year. During the winter their waters are covered with the swan, wild goose, brant, and duck. Cat-fish have been caught in those rivers that weighed above 100 pounds, and perch that weighed above twenty pounds.

The mammoth, the king of the land animals, was formerly an inhabitant of this country, as appears from his bones, which have been dug up by labourers at Campbell's Salines, on North Holstein, when sinking salt pits; they were from three to seven feet below the surface of the earth.

SALINES, MINES, SPRINGS, &c.] Campbell's Salines, just mentioned, are the only ones that have yet been discovered on the upper branches of the Tennessee and on this side the wilderness, though great search has been made for them. The tract which contains these salines is a great natural curiosity; it was discovered by Capt. Charles Campbell, about 1745, who was one of the first explorers of the western country. In 1753, he procured a patent for it from the governor of Virginia. His son, the late General William Campbell, the same who behaved so gallantly in the American war, in the years 1780 and 1781, became owner of it on his death. But it was not till the time of his death, when salt was very scarce and dear, that salt water was discovered, and salt made by a poor man; since that time, under the direction of Colonel Arthur Campbell, it has been improved to a considerable extent, and many thousands of inhabitants are supplied from it with salt of a superior quality, and at a low price. The tract consists of about 300 acres of flat marsh land, of as rich a soil as can be imagined: in this flat, pits are sunk in order to obtain the salt water; the best is found from thirty to forty feet deep; after passing through the rich soil or mud, from six to ten feet, you come to a very brittle lime-stone rock, with cracks or chasms, through which the salt water issues into the pits, whence it is drawn by buckets and put into the boilers, which are placed in furnaces adjoining the pits. The hills that surround this flat are covered with fine timber, and not far distant a coal mine has been discovered.

On Frank river, about thirty miles in a direct line from its mouth, a large, clear, medicinal spring has lately been discovered, which, on experiment, has been found to relieve various complaints of the human body. Its temperature rather exceeds blood heat.

On the same river, nearer its mouth, a valuable lead mine has lately been discovered.

COMMERCE.] This country furnishes many valuable articles of export, such as fine waggon and saddle horses, beef, cattle, ginseng, deer skins and furs, cotton, hemp, and flax, which may be transported by land; also iron, lumber, pork, and flour, which might be exported in great quantities, if the navigation of the Mississippi were opened; but there are few of the inhabitants who understand commerce, or are possessed of proper capitals; of course it is badly managed: the wicked practice of land jobbing engrosses too much of the attention of the inhabitants. The degraded state

of commerce has rendered necessary a general attention to home manufactures; and it is to be hoped that the eyes of the people will soon be opened to their true interest, and agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, each receive proper attention.

RELIGION.] The Presbyterians are the prevailing denomination of Christians in this district: they have a Presbytery, called the Abingdon Presbytery, established by act of synod, which, in 1788, consisted of 23 large congregations, who were then supplied by only six ministers. There are also some of the Baptist and Methodist denominations.

ACADEMY AND SOCIETY.] The inhabitants of this district have not been inattentive to the interests of science. An academy and several grammar schools have been established; and a society, who style themselves, "A Society for promoting Useful Knowledge." It is of modern date, but much good is expected from it. A taste for literature is increasing among them.

GOVERNMENT.] Similar to that established by Congress in the territory of the United States, north-west of the Ohio. The governor is the executive (and, in his absence, the secretary), and the governor and three judges the legislative power, in the district.

CHARACTER, MANNERS, AND DRESS.] There is nothing in the character of this people that distinguishes them from the settlers of new countries in general. Among the bulk of the inhabitants a great simplicity of manners prevails. Duplicity or the etiquette of cities and populous places is unknown among them. If a man deceives another, he is deemed and called a liar; and it frequently happens that "a bloody nose" is the consequence. Wrestling, jumping, running foot races, and playing at ball, are the common diversions. Dancing is coming into fashion. Card playing is a rare amusement. The hunting shirt is still worn by the militia on duty, and by hunters in pursuit of game. At home, and at public assemblies, they dress like the Virginians.

DAMAGE BY THE WAR.] Great was the damage sustained by the inhabitants of this district during the war, occasioned by the incursions of the Indians; and it is much to the honour of this patriotic people, that when they were offered protection by the British, in the early stage of the war, they nobly refused it.

PRINCIPAL TOWNS.] Nashville, the shire town of Davidson county, is the largest town in the territory. The courts are held here; and it has two houses for public worship, and a handsomely endowed academy, established in 1786.

Abingdon is the county town of Washington county: it contained, in 1788, about 20 houses, and was rapidly increasing: it is about 260 miles from Richmond in Virginia, in a direct line, and 310 as the road runs, bearing a little to the south of west, latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$.

MILITIA.] In 1788, the militia of this district amounted to between 7 and 8000 effective men, who were principally armed with rifles. It is supposed that their number is increased nearly one half since that period.

REVENUE.] The public revenue amounts to about 5 or 6000 pounds, raised chiefly by a tax on slaves, lands, and horses.

ROADS.] The following are the distances on the new road from Nashville, in Davidson county, to Fort Campbell, near the junction of Holstein river with the Tennessee.

	Miles.		Miles.
From Nashville to Stony		From King's Spring	- 16
river -	- 9	Grovet's Creek	- 7
Big Spring	- 6	The foot of Cumberland	
Cedar Lick -	- 4	Mountain	- 2
Little Spring	- 6	Through the Mountain	
Barton's Creek	- 4	to Emmery's river, a	
Spring Creek -	- 5	branch of the Peleson	11
Martin's Spring	- 5	To the Pappa Ford of	
Blair's Spring	- 5	the Peleson or Clinch	
Buck Spring	- 12	river -	- 12
Fountain's -	- 8	To Campbell's station,	
Smith's Creek	- 6	near Holstein	- 10
Coney River	- 11	To the Great Island	- 100
Mine Lick -	- 9	To Abingdon in Wash-	
Falling Creek	- 9	ington county	- 35
War Path -	- 7	To Richmond in Virgi-	310
Bear Creek -	- 18	nia	
Camp Creek	- 8	Total	635

By this new road, a pleasant passage may be had to the western country with carriages, as there will be only the Cumberland mountain to pass, and that is easy of ascent; and beyond it, the road is generally level and firm, abounding with fine springs of water.

INDIANS.] The Indian tribes, within and in the vicinity of this district, are the Cherokees and Chickasaws. The Cherokees have been a warlike and numerous nation; but by continual wars, in which it has been their destiny to be engaged with the northern Indian tribes, they were reduced, at the commencement of the last war, to about 2000 fighting men; since which they have been reduced more than one-half, and have become weak and pusillanimous.

The Chickasaws, of all the Indian tribes within the limits of the United States, merit the most from the Americans, having at all times maintained a brotherly attachment to them: they glory in saying, that they never shed the blood of an Anglo American. There is so great an affinity between the Chickasaw and Choctaw languages, that the common people can converse together, each speaking in his own dialect. They are a personable people, and have an openness in their countenances and behaviour, uncommon among savages. These nations say, they are the remnant of a great nation that once lived far to the west, which was destroyed by the Spaniards, for whom they still retain an hereditary hatred. Would it not be the policy of Congress to treat with these nations? and might not their friendship be greatly serviceable to the Union?

HISTORY.] The eastern parts of this district were explored by Colonels Wood, Patton, Buchanan, Captain Charles Campbell, and Dr. T. Walker, (each of whom were concerned in large grants of land from the government) as early as between the years of 1740 and 1750. In 1754, at the commencement of the French war, not more than 50 families had settled here, who were either destroyed or driven off by the Indians before the close of the following year. It remained uninhabited till 1765, when the settlement of it re-commenced; and in 1773, (such was the vast accession of emigrants)

the country as far west as the Long Island of Holstein, an extent of more than 120 miles in length from east to west, was well peopled.

In 1774, a war broke out with the northern Indians over the Ohio, which issued in their suing for peace, which was granted them on easy terms.

The year 1776 was signalized by a formidable invasion of the Cherokees, contrived by the British superintendent, Mr. Stuart. Their intention was to depopulate the country as far as the Kanhawa, because this brave people had rejected, with a noble firmness and indignation, the proposals of Henry Stuart and Alexander Cameron for joining the British standard, and were almost unanimous in their resolution to support the measures of Congress. This invasion issued in a total defeat of the Indians.

In 1780, the Tories of the western parts of North Carolina and Virginia, emboldened by the reduction of Charlestown by the British, embodied in armed parties, and proceeded towards the lead mines on the Kanhawa, to take possession of some lead stores at that place, but were defeated in their attempt by the vigilance of Col. A. Campbell and Col. Chockett.

Various other movements took place in the course of this year, but the most interesting and brilliant was the battle of King's Mountain, which was fought and won by about 900 Mountaineers, (as the veteran sons of this district were called) commanded by the brave General William Campbell, against a party of the British under the command of Colonel Ferguson. Upwards of 1100 of the enemy were either killed, wounded, or taken; among the former was Col. Ferguson, an officer of distinguished merit.* In arousing the inhabitants, issuing orders, collecting the forces, and in arranging and animating them, at the place of rendezvous, previous to this successful expedition, much was done by the activity and decision of Col. Arthur Campbell, the senior officer of the district, to whom much praise is due.

Soon after this, to defeat a meditated invasion of the Cherokee Indians, which was discovered by Nancy Ward, an Indian woman, called, from this circumstance, the western *Pocahontas*, Col. A. Campbell, with 700 mountaineers, well mounted, penetrated far into the Cherokee country; introduced the new and successful mode of fighting Indians on horseback; accomplished his designs, and returned in Jan. 1781.

In the celebrated battle at Guildford, March 15, 1781, the mountaineers, under Gen. W. Campbell, who on that day commanded with great applause the left wing of the army, behaved with their usual gallantry. This nearly closed the active part which the Mountain men took in the American war.

In 1782, the legislature of North Carolina appointed commissioners to explore the western part of the State, (by which is meant as well the lands included in Davidson county, as those between the south boundary of this county, and those between the rivers Mississippi and Tennessee) and report to the succeeding legislature, which part was best for the payment of the bounty promised to the officers and soldiers of the continental line of that State; and they accordingly did explore the before-described tract of country, and reported to the legislature in the spring of the year 1783. Although this country was not established by law before the last-mentioned period, yet a few families had settled in the year 1780, principally under the guidance of Col. James Robertson, on Cumberland river, and called the place Nashville, in honour of Brigadier-General Francis Nash, who fell at Germantown, in the year 1777; but he had but few followers until the year 1783, after the peace had taken place, and after an act

* See Ramsay's Revol. South Carolina, vol. II. page 181.

had passed, directing the military or bounty warrants of the officers and soldiers to be located in this county. These circumstances induced many officers and soldiers to repair immediately thither, to secure and settle their lands; and such as did not chuse to go, sold their warrants to citizens who did go: in consequence of this, many people from almost every State in the Union became purchasers of these military warrants, and are since become residents of this county; and many valuable and opulent families have removed to it from the Natches. Colonel Robertson, when he settled at Nashville, was upwards of 200 miles distant (to the westward) from any other settlement in his own State, and was equally distant from the then settled parts of Kentucky. Hence it will readily be supposed, that himself and party were in danger every hour of being cut off by the Indians, against whom his principal security was, that he was as far distant from them as from the white people; and slender as this security may appear, his party never sustained any damage from the Indians, but what was done by parties of hunters, who happened to find out his settlements. The face of this country is in general level, and the soil very rich, equal to any other part of America, and produces in abundance every thing that can be expected from so temperate a climate and so rich a soil. It is common for the planter to gather from his fields, upon an average, sixty bushels of Indian corn per acre. This county is well watered by the rivers Tennessee and Cumberland, and their branches. Both of these rivers empty into the Ohio shortly after they pass the north boundary of the State. As the waters of the Cumberland from Nashville, and of the Tennessee from the Muscle shoals to the Ohio, are navigable to the Ohio and Mississippi, the people of course, who live in this county or the adjacent country, have the same advantages of water conveyance for trade, as those who live on the Ohio or Mississippi, to New Orleans or elsewhere.

Besides, there is another probable avenue through which trade will be carried on with this county and the adjacent country, which is from Mobile, up the waters of the Mobile river as far as it is navigable, thence by a land carriage of about 50 miles (at most) to Ocochappo creek, which empties into the Tennessee at the lower end of the Muscle shoals. The mouth of this creek is the center of a piece of ground, the diameter of which is five miles, ceded by the southern Indians at the treaty of Hopwell, on Kceowce, to the United States, for the establishment of trading posts.

In 1785, in conformity to the resolves of Congress of April 23, 1784, the inhabitants of this district essayed to form themselves into a body politic, by the name of the "State of Frankland;" but, differing among themselves as to the form of government, and about other matters, in the issue of which some blood was shed; and being opposed by some leading characters in the eastern parts, the scheme was given up, and the inhabitants remained in general peaceable until 1790, when Congress established their present government. Since this period, some late incursions of the Indians excepted, the inhabitants have been peaceable and prosperous.

S O U T H C A R O L I N A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.		Square Miles.
Length	200	between { 4° and 9° W. Lon. } { 32° and 35° W. Lat. }	20,000
Breadth	125		

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by North Carolina, and the Tennessee government; east, by the Atlantic Ocean; south, and south-west, by Savannah river, and a branch of its head waters, called Tugulo river, which divides this State from Georgia.*

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] The proprietors who first sent settlers to Carolina, divided it into counties and parishes. The counties are generally named after the proprietors. No county courts, however, were established, and this division, though for a long time kept up in the province, became in a great measure obsolete, previous to the revolution. Since the revolution, county courts have been established, where a majority of the inhabitants have petitioned for them, and the State is now divided into districts and counties; and the counties are subdivided, in the lower country, into parishes; and in the upper country, into smaller or voting districts.

There are seven districts, in which are 36 counties, as follows:

Districts.	Counties.	Districts.	Counties.
BEAUFORT district, on the sea coast, between Combahee & Savannah rivers. Chief town BEAUFORT, 18,753 inhabitants.	Hilton, Lincoln, Granville, Shrewsbury.	CHARLESTOWN district, between Santee and Combahee rivers. Ch. town CHARLESTOWN, 76,985 inhabitants.	Charlestown, Washington, Marion, Berkley, Colleton, Bartholomew.
ORANGEBURGH district, west of Beaufort district. Chief town ORANGEBURGH, 18,513 inhabitants.	Lewisburgh, Orange, Lexington, Winton.	CAMDEN district, west of Georgetown district. Chief town CAMDEN, 38,065 inhabitants.	Clarendon, Richland, Fairfield, Claremont, Lancaster, York, Chester.
GEORGETOWN district, between Santee river and North Carolina. Chief town GEORGETOWN, 22,122 inhabitants.	Winyah, Williamsburgh, Kingston, Liberty.	NINETY-SIX district, comprehends all other parts of the State, not included in the other district. Chief town CAMBRIDGE, 73,729 inhabitants.	Abbeville, Edgefield, Newbury, Union, Laurens, Spartanburgh, Greenville, Pendleton.

* See page 548, note.

CHERAWS district, west	}	
of Georgetown district.		Marlborough,
Chief town		Chesterfield,
———, 10,706 inhabitants.		Darlington.

Total number of inhabitants in 1791, 249,073, of whom 107,094 were slaves.

The committee, appointed by act of Assembly to divide the districts into counties, were directed to lay them as nearly 40 miles square as was practicable, due regard being paid to situations, natural boundaries, &c.

As the lower country was originally settled by people from Europe, under the proprietary government and influence, all the then counties were divided into parishes: and even now, although the old counties are done away, the boundaries altered, and new ones established, the division of parishes subsists in the three lower districts, the people chuse their senators and representatives by parishes, as formerly. But in the middle and upper districts, which were settled by people of various nations from Europe, but principally by northern emigrants, parishes are hardly known, except perhaps in Orangeburgh district. In these districts the people vote in small divisions, as convenience dictates.

CLIMATE.] The climate is different in different parts of the State: along the sea coast, bilious diseases, and fevers of various kinds, are prevalent between July and October. The probability of dying is much greater between the 20th of June and the 20th of October, than in the other eight months in the year.

One cause of these diseases is, a low marshy country, which is overflowed for the sake of cultivating rice. The exhalations from these stagnated waters, from the rivers, and from the neighbouring ocean, and the profuse perspiration of vegetables of all kinds, which cover the ground, fill the air with moisture: this moisture falls in frequent rains and copious dews. From actual observation it has been found that the average annual fall of rain for ten years was 42 inches; without regarding the moisture that fell in fogs and dews. The great heat of the day relaxes the body, and the agreeable coolness of the evening invites to an exposure to these heavy dews.

The disagreeable effects of this climate, experience has proved, might in a great measure be avoided by those inhabitants, whose circumstances will admit of their removal from the neighbourhood of the rice swamps to healthier situations, during the months of July, August, September, and October; and in the worst situations, by temperance and care. Violent exercise on horseback, chiefly, exposure to the meridian rays of the sun, sudden showers of rain, and the night air, are too frequently the causes of fevers and other disorders. Would the sportsmen deny themselves, during the fall months, their favourite amusements of hunting and fishing; or confine themselves to a very few hours, in the morning or evening; would the industrious planter visit his fields only at the same hours; or would the poorer class of people pay due attention to their manner of living, and observe the precautions recommended to them by men of knowledge and experience, much sickness and many distressing events might be prevented. The upper country, situated in the medium between extreme heat and cold, is as healthful as any part of the United States.

RIVERS.] This State is watered by four large navigable rivers, besides a great number of smaller ones, which are passable in boats. The river Savannah washes it in its whole length from south-east to north-west. The Edisto rises in two branches from a
remark-

remarkable ridge in the interior part of the State. These branches unite below Orangeburgh, which stands on the North Fork, and form Edisto river, which, having passed Jacksonburgh, leaving it on the south, branches and embraces Edisto island.

Santee is the largest and longest river in this State: it empties into the ocean by two mouths, a little south of Georgetown. About 120 miles in a direct line from its mouth, it branches into the Congaree and Wateree; the latter or northern branch passes the Catabaw nation of Indians, and bears the name of the Catabaw river from this settlement to its source. The Congaree branches into Saluda and Broad rivers. Broad river again branches into Enoree, Tyger, and Pacolet rivers, on the latter of which are the celebrated Pacolet springs.

Pedee river rises in North Carolina, where it is called Yadkin river: in this State, however, it takes the name of Pedee; and, receiving the waters of Lynche's creek, Little Pedee, and Black river, it joins the Wakkamaw river, near Georgetown. These united streams, with the accession of a small creek, on which Georgetown stands, form Winyaw bay, which, about 12 miles below, communicates with the ocean. All the forementioned rivers, except Edisto, rises from various sources in that ridge of mountains which divides the waters which flow into the Atlantic ocean, from those which fall into the Mississippi.

The rivers of a secondary size, as you pass from N. to S. are Wakkamaw, Black river, Cooper, Ashpoo, and Combahee. These rivers afford, to the proprietors of their banks, a considerable quantity of tide swamp or rice land, flowable from the rivers, except in extraordinary droughts.

In the third class are comprehended those rivers which extend but a short distance from the ocean, and serve, by branching into numberless creeks, as drains to take off the quantity of rain water, which comes down from the large inland swamps; or are merely arms of the sea: of this kind, are Ashley, Stono, Coosaw, Broad, Colleton, May, New, and Right's rivers. The tide, in no part of the State, flows more than 25 miles from the sea.

CANAL.] A company has been incorporated for the purpose of connecting Cooper and Santee rivers by a canal of 21 miles in length. The sum supposed to be necessary to complete this extensive work is 55,620*l.* sterling. Twenty-five per cent. are allowed by the legislature in tolls for all monies advanced by stockholders. The advantage of a canal at this place, to one who inspects a map of the Carolinas, must appear to be great, both to the public and to the proprietors.

MOUNTAINS.] Except the high hills of Santee, the Ridge, and some few other hills, this country is like one extensive plain, till you reach the Tryon and Hogback mountains, 220 miles north-west of Charlestown. The elevation of these mountains above their base is 3840 feet, and above the sea coast 4640. There is exhibited from the top of these mountains an extensive view of this State, North Carolina, and Georgia: and as no object intervenes to obstruct the view, a man with *telescopic* eyes might discern vessels at sea. The mountains west and north-west rise much higher than these, and form a ridge, which divides the waters of Tennessee and Santee rivers.

HARBOURS.] The only harbours of note are those of Charlestown, Port Royal, and Georgetown. Charlestown harbour is spacious, convenient, and safe: it is formed by the junction of Ashley and Cooper rivers: its entrance is guarded by Fort Johnson. Twelve miles from the city is a bar, over which are four channels; one, by the name of Ship Channel, has 18 feet water; another 16½; the other two are for smaller vessels. The tides rise from five to eight feet. Port Royal has an excellent harbour, of sufficient extent to contain the largest fleet in the world.

The bar at the entrance of Winyaw bay, which leads to Georgetown, does not admit of vessels drawing more than 11 feet water; and is, in many respects, a very dangerous place. This circumstance has proved injurious to the growth of Georgetown, which is otherwise exceedingly well situated for all the purposes of an extensive trade.

ISLANDS.] The sea coast is bordered with a chain of fine sea islands, around which the sea flows, opening an excellent inland navigation, for the conveyance of produce to market.

North of Charlestown harbour lie Bull's, Dewee's, and Sullivan's islands, which form the north part of the harbour. James island lies on the other side of the harbour, opposite Charlestown, containing about fifty families. Further S. W. is John's island, larger than James; Stono river, which forms a convenient and safe harbour, divides these islands. Contiguous to John's island, and connected with it, by a bridge, is Wadmelow; east of which are the small isles of Keyway and Simmon. Between these and Edisto island is N. Edisto inlet, which also affords a good harbour for vessels of easy draft of water. South of Edisto island is S. Edisto inlet, through which enter, from the northward, all the vessels bound to Beaufort, Asheepoo, Combahee and Coosaw.

On the S. W. side of St. Helena island lies a cluster of islands, one of the largest of which is Port Royal. Adjacent to Port Royal lie St. Helena, Ladies island, Paris island, and the Hunting islands, five or six in number, bordering on the ocean, so called from the number of deer and other wild game found upon them. All these islands, and some others of less note, belong to St. Helena parish.

Crossing Broad river, you come to Hilton Head, the most southern sea island in Carolina. West and south-west of Hilton Head, lie Pinckney's, Bulls, Dawfuskie's, and some smaller islands, between which and Hilton Head, are Calibogie river and sound, which form the outlet of May and New rivers.

The soil on these islands is generally better adapted to the culture of indigo than the main, and less suited to rice: cotton grows very well upon them. The natural growth is the live oak, which is so excellent for ship timber, and the palmetto or cabbage tree, the utility of which, in the construction of forts, was experienced during the late war.

CHIEF TOWNS.] CHARLESTOWN is the only considerable town in South Carolina: it is situated on the tongue of land which is formed by the confluence of Ashley and Cooper rivers, which are large and navigable. These rivers mingle their waters immediately below the town, and form a spacious and convenient harbour, which communicates with the ocean just below Sullivan's island, which it leaves on the north, seven miles south-east of the town. In these rivers the tide rises, in common about $6\frac{1}{2}$ feet.* The continued agitation which this occasions in the waters which almost surround Charlestown; the refreshing sea breezes which are regularly felt, and the smoke rising from so many chimneys, render Charlestown more healthy than any part of the low country in the southern states. On this account it is the resort of great numbers of gentlemen, invalids from the West India islands, and of the rich planters from the country, who come here to spend the sickly months, as they are called, in quest of health and of the social enjoyments which the city affords: and in no part of America are the social blessings enjoyed more rationally and liberally than in Charlestown. Unaffected hospitality, affability, ease in manners and address, and a disposition to make

* It is worthy of remark, that the tide uniformly rises considerably higher in the night than in the day; often from ten to twelve inches. The fact is certain; the cause is unknown.

their guests welcome, easy, and pleased with themselves, are characteristics of the respectable people in Charlestown.

The land on which the town is built is flat and low, and the water brackish and unwholesome. The streets from east to west extend from river to river, and, running in a straight line, not only open beautiful prospects each way, but afford excellent opportunities, by means of subterranean drains, for removing all nuisances, and keeping the city clean and healthy. These streets are intersected by others, nearly at right angles, and throw the town into a number of squares, with dwelling houses in front, and office houses and little gardens behind. Some of the streets are conveniently wide, but most of them are much too narrow, especially for so populous a city, in so warm a climate. Besides their being a nursery for various diseases from their confined situation, they have been found extremely inconvenient in case of fires, the destructive effects of which have been frequently felt in this city. The houses, which have been lately built, are brick, with tiled roofs. Some of the buildings in Charlestown are elegant, and most of them are neat, airy, and well furnished. The public buildings are, an exchange, state house, lately rebuilt, armoury, poor house, two large churches for Episcopalians, two for Congregationalists or Independents, one for Scotch Presbyterians, one for Baptists, one for German Lutherans, two for the Methodists, (a large house for worship, being lately finished by them) one for French Protestants, besides a meeting house for Quakers, a Roman Catholic chapel, and a Jewish synagogue.

But little attention is paid to the public markets. A great proportion of the most wealthy inhabitants have plantations, from which they receive supplies of almost every article of living. The country abounds with poultry and wild ducks: their beef, mutton, and veal, are not of the best kind. Few fish are brought to market.

In 1787, it was computed that there was 1600 houses in this city, and 9600 white inhabitants, and 5400 negroes; and what evinces the healthiness of the place, upwards of 200 of the white inhabitants were above 60 years of age. In 1791, there were 16,359 inhabitants, of whom 7684 were slaves.

Charlestown was incorporated in 1783, and divided into 13 wards, which chuse as many wardens, from among whom the citizens elect an intendant of the city. The intendant and wardens form the city council, who have power to make and enforce bye-laws for the regulation of the city.

BEAUFORT, on Port Royal island, is a pleasant little town, of about 50 or 60 houses, and 200 inhabitants, who are distinguished for their hospitality and politeness. The courts which were formerly held here, are now held at Coosawhatchie.

GEORGETOWN, the seat of justice in Georgetown district, stands on a spot of land near the junction of a number of rivers, which, when united in one broad stream, by the name of Winyaw, fall into the ocean 12 miles below the town.

COLUMBIA, which has lately been made the seat of government by the legislature, stands just below the junction of Saluda and Broad rivers, on the Congaree. The public offices have, however, in some instances been divided, for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the lower counties, and a branch of each retained in Charlestown.

CAMDEN, on the Wateree, N. W. of Santee hills, 130 miles west of north from Charlestown, is regularly built, upon a good plan; but a small part of it is yet executed.

PURYSBURGH is a hilly village, about 20 miles above Savannah, on the north bank of the river of the same name. It was early settled by foreigners, with a view to the culture of silk, which for a while they attended to with spirit. The mulberry trees are yet standing, and some attention is still paid to the making of silk: but the profits of
the

the rice and indigo soon diverted the original planters from almost every other pursuit. Besides these, are Jackſonborough, Orangeburgh, Winniborough, and Cambridge, which are all inconsiderable villages of from 30 to 60 dwelling houſes.

GENERAL FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The whole State, to the diſtance of 80 miles from the ſea, is level, and almoſt without a ſtone. In this diſtance, by a gradual aſcent from the ſea coaſt, the land riſes about 190 feet. Here, if you proceed in a W.N.W. courſe from Charleſtown, commences a curiouſly uneven country. The traveller is conſtantly aſcending or deſcending little ſand hills, which nature ſeems to have diſunitied in a frolic. If a pretty high ſea were ſuddenly arreſted, and transformed into ſand hills, in the very form the waves exiſted at the moment of transformation, it would preſent the eye with juſt ſuch a view as is here to be ſeen. Some little herbage, and a few ſmall pines grow even on this ſoil. The inhabitants are few, and have but a ſcanty ſubſiſtence on corn and ſweet potatoes, which grow here tolerably well. This curious country continues for ſixty miles, till you arrive at a place called *The Ridge*, 140 miles from Charleſtown. This ridge is a remarkable tract of high ground, as you approach it from the ſea, but level as you advance north-weſt from its ſummit. It is a fine high, healthy belt of land, well watered, and of a good ſoil, and extends from the Savannah to Broad river, in about 6° 30' weſt longitude from Philadelphia. Beyond this ridge commences a country exactly reſembling the northern States. Here hills and dales, with all their verdure and variegated beauty, preſent themſelves to the eye. Wheat fields, which are rare in the low country, begin to grow common. Here Heaven has beſtowed its bleſſing with a moſt bounteous hand. The air is much more temperate and healthful than nearer to the ſea. The hills are covered with valuable woods; the vallies watered with beautiful rivers, and the fertility of the ſoil is equal to every vegetable production. This, by way of diſtinction, is called the Upper Country, where are different modes and different articles of cultivation; where the manners of the people, and even their language, have a different tone. The land ſtill riſes by a gradual aſcent; each ſucceeding hill overlooks that which immediately precedes it, till, having advanced 220 miles in a north-weſt direction from Charleſtown, the elevation of the land above the ſea coaſt is found by meſuration to be 800 feet. Here commences a mountainous country, which continues riſing to the weſtern terminating point of this State.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] The ſoil may be divided into four kinds; firſt, the pine barren, which is valuable only for its timber. Intersperſed among the pine barren are tracts of land free of timber, and every kind of growth but that of graſs. Theſe tracts are called ſavannahs, conſtituting a ſecond kind of ſoil, good for grazing. The third kind is that of the ſwamps and low grounds on the rivers, which is a mixture of black loam and fat clay, producing naturally canes in great plenty, cypreſs, bays, loblolly pines, &c. In theſe ſwamps rice is cultivated, which conſtitutes the ſtaple commodity of the State. The high lands, commonly known by the name of oak and hickory lands, conſtitute the fourth kind of ſoil. The natural growth is oak, hickory, walnut, pine, and locuſt. On theſe lands, in the low country, are cultivated Indian corn principally; and in the back country, beſides theſe, they raiſe tobacco in large quantities, wheat, rye, barley, oats, hemp, flax, cotton, and ſilk.*

There is little fruit in this State, eſpecially in the lower parts of it. They have oranges; which are chiefly ſour, and figs in plenty, a few limes and lemons, pomegra-

* See the nature of the ſoil more particularly deſcribed under this head in the deſcription of Georgia.

nates, pears, and peaches; apples are scarce, and are imported from the northern States. Melons, (especially the water melon) are raised here in great perfection.

The river swamps, in which rice can be cultivated with any tolerable degree of safety and success, do not extend higher up the rivers than the head of the tides; and in estimating the value of this species of rice land, the height which the tide rises is taken into consideration, those lying where it rises to a proper pitch for overflowing the swamps being the most valuable. The best inland swamps, which constitute a second species of rice land, are such as are furnished with reserves of water. These reserves are formed by means of large banks thrown up at the upper parts of the swamps, whence it is conveyed, when needed, to the fields of rice.

At the distance of about 110 miles from the sea, the river swamps terminate, and the high lands extend quite to the rivers, and form banks, in some places, several hundred feet high from the surface of the water, and afford many extensive and delightful views. These high banks are interwoven with layers of leaves and different coloured earth, and abound with quarries of free-stone, pebbles, flint, crystals, iron ore in abundance, silver, lead, sulphur, and coarse diamonds.

The swamps above the head of the tide are occasionally planted with corn, cotton, and indigo. The soil is very rich, yielding from forty to fifty bushels of corn an acre.

It is curious to observe the gradations from the sea coast to the upper country, with respect to the produce, the mode of cultivation, and the cultivators. On the islands upon the sea coast, and for forty or fifty miles back (and on the rivers much farther) the cultivators are all slaves. No white man, to speak generally, ever thinks of settling a farm and improving it for himself without negroes. If he has no negroes, he hires himself as overseer to some rich planter, who has more than he can or will attend to, till he can purchase for himself. The articles cultivated are corn and potatoes, which, with the small rice, are food for the negroes; rice, indigo, and cotton, for exportation. The culture of this last article is capable of being increased equal to almost any demand. The soil was cultivated, till lately, almost wholly by manual labour. The plough, till since the peace, was scarcely used. Now, the plough and harrow and other improvements are introduced into the rice swamps with great success, and will no doubt become general. In the middle settlements, negroes are not so numerous. The master attends personally to his own business. The land is not properly situated for rice. It produces moderately good indigo weed, and some tobacco is raised for exportation. The farmer is contented to raise corn, potatoes, oats, rye, poultry, and a little wheat. In the upper country, there are but few negroes; generally speaking, the farmers have none, and depend, like the inhabitants of the northern States, upon the labour of themselves and families for subsistence; the plough is used almost wholly. Indian corn in great quantities, wheat, rye, potatoes, &c. are raised for food, and much tobacco and some wheat, cotton and indigo for exportation.

MODE OF CULTIVATING RICE.] Rice ground is prepared only by effectually securing it from the water, except some higher parts of it, which are sometimes dug up with a hoe, or mellowed by a plough or harrow. When the rice is young, the overflowing of the water does not prevent its growth. Those who have water in reserve, commonly let it in upon their rice, after first going through with the hoe, while it is young, though it is deemed best to keep out the grass without this aid, by the hoe only. The water is commonly kept on the rice eight or ten days after hoeing. When the ear is formed, the water is continued on till it is ripe. It is hoed three or four times. When the grass is very thick, a negro cannot hoe more than one sixteenth of an

an acre in a day. From three pecks to a bushel is sown an acre. It produces from fifty to eighty-bushels of rough rice an acre; 120 bushels of rough rice have been produced on one acre; twenty bushels of which make about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter bushels clean rice for market. After it is threshed, it is winnowed, and then ground in a mill, constructed of two blocks in a simple manner; then winnowed by a fan constructed for that purpose, then beat in a mortar by hand, or now generally by horse or water machines, then sifted, to separate the whole rice from that which is broken and the flour. The whole rice is then barrelled in casks of about 500 pounds, or eight and a quarter bushels. The small rice serves for provisions, and the flour for provender, the chaff for manure, and the straw for fodder. The blade is green and fresh while the ear is ripe. The price is from 9s. 4d. to 10s. 6d. a hundred; dollars 4s. 8d.

MANUFACTURES.] In the middle, and especially in the upper country, the people are obliged to manufacture their own cotton and woollen cloths, and most of their husbandry tools; but in the lower country, the inhabitants, for these articles, depend almost entirely on their merchants. Late accounts from the interior parts of this State inform, that the inhabitants manufacture, entirely in the family way, as much as they have occasion for; that cotton, hemp, and flax are plenty; that they have a considerable stock of good sheep; that great exertions are made, and much done in the household way; that they have long been in the habit of doing something in family manufactures; but within a few years past great improvements have been made. The women do the weaving and leave the men to attend to agriculture.

This State furnishes all the materials, and of the best kind, for ship building. The live oak, and the pitch and yellow pines, are of a superior quality. Ships might be built here with more ease, and to much greater advantage, than in the middle and eastern States. A want of seamen is one reason why this business is not more generally attended to.

So much attention is now paid to the manufacture of indigo in this State, that it bids fair to rival that of the French. It is to be regretted, that it is still the practice of the merchants concerned in the Carolina trade to sell, at foreign markets, the Carolina indigo of the first quality, as French.

CONSTITUTION.] The legislative authority is vested in a General Assembly, consisting of a Senate and House of Representatives. There are 124 representatives, and 35 senators appointed among the several districts. The representatives are chosen for two years, must be free white men, twenty-one years old, and have been inhabitants of the State three years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold of 500 acres of land, and ten negroes, or real estate worth 150l. sterling, clear of debt; if non-resident, must have a freehold in the district worth 500l. sterling clear of debt. The senators are chosen for four years, and divided into two classes, one class being chosen every second year. They must be free white men, thirty years old, and have been inhabitants five years. If resident in the district, they must have a freehold worth 300l. sterling, clear of debt; if non-resident, a freehold worth 1000l. sterling, clear of debt. Every free white man, twenty-one years old, having been an inhabitant of the State two years, and been a freeholder of fifty acres of land, or a town lot, six months, or having been resident in the district six months, and paid a tax of 3s. sterling, has a right to vote for members of the legislature. The General Assembly is chosen on the second Monday of October, and meets on the fourth Monday in November annually. Each house chooses its own officers; judges of the qualifications of its members, and has a negative on the other. A majority of each make a quorum from day to day, and compel

compel the attendance of members. They are protected, in their persons and estates, during the sessions, and ten days before and after; except in cases of treason, felony, and breach of the peace. They are paid out of the public treasury, from which no money is drawn but by the legislative authority. Revenue bills originate in the lower house, but may be altered or rejected by the senate. Army and navy contractors, and all officers, excepting officers in the militia, justices of the peace, and justices of the county courts which have no salaries, are excluded from the General Assembly. The clergy are excluded from civil offices. The executive authority is vested in a governor, chosen for two years, by both houses of assembly jointly; but he cannot be re-elected till after four years. He must be thirty years old, have been an inhabitant of the State ten years, and have an estate in it worth 1500l. sterling, clear of debt. He can hold no other office, except in the militia. A lieutenant-governor is chosen in the same manner, for the same time, and possessing the same qualifications; and holds the office of governor in case of vacancy. The governor is commander in chief of the military force; has power to remit fines and forfeitures, and grant reprieves and pardons, except in cases of impeachment; to require information of executive officers; to convene the General Assembly on extraordinary occasions, and to adjourn them to any time not beyond the fourth Monday in November next ensuing, in case they cannot agree on the time themselves. He must inform the General Assembly of the condition of the State; recommend such measures as he shall judge expedient; and take care that the laws are faithfully executed in mercy. The legislature has power to vest the judicial authority in such courts as it shall think proper. The judges hold their commission during good behaviour. Those of the superior courts are elected by joint ballot of both houses of assembly; have a fixed salary, and can hold no other office. All officers take an oath of fidelity to their duty, and to the constitution of this State, and of the United States; and, for misconduct, may be impeached by the House of Representatives, and tried by the Senate. This constitution asserts the supreme power of the people; liberty of conscience; trial by jury; and subordination of the military to the civil power. It excludes *ex post facto* laws; bills of attainder; excessive bail; and titles of nobility and hereditary distinction.

The legislature has power, under certain regulations, to make amendments to the constitution. And a convention may be called by a vote of two thirds of both branches of the whole representation.

This constitution was ratified June 3d, 1790.

LAWS.] The laws of this State have nothing in them of a particular nature, excepting what arises from the permission of slavery. The evidence of a slave cannot be taken against a white man; and the master who kills his slave is not punishable otherwise than by a pecuniary mulct, and twelve months imprisonment.

A committee was appointed, at the session of the legislature in 1792, to put in train the business of revising and amending the negro act, or the law for governing the slaves. The issue we hope will meliorate the condition of the slaves, and afford an evidence to the world of the enlightened policy, and increasing humanity of the citizens of this State. We anticipate an issue of this nature the rather, because a disposition to soften the rigors of slavery has of late been manifested, by allowing them fish, tobacco, and summer clothing, which formerly was not customary.

A law, altering the mode of descent of intestate estates, which formerly descended according to the laws of England, was passed in 1792. According to the present law, a more equal partition takes place, and more conformable to a republican government, and to the dictates of natural affection.

By a late regulation, the judges of the court, who before had a salary of 500*l.* each, and fees, have now 600*l.* and no fees. The chief justice has 800*l.*

STATE OF LITERATURE.] Gentlemen of fortune, before the late war, sent their sons to Europe for education. During the war and since, they have generally sent them to the middle and northern States. Those who have been at this expense in educating their sons, have been but comparatively few in number, so that the literature of the State is at a low ebb. Since the peace, however, it has begun to flourish. There are several respectable academies at Charlestown; one at Beaufort, on Port Royal Island, and several others in different parts of the State. Three colleges have lately been incorporated by law; one at Charlestown, one at Winnsborough, in the district of Camden, the other at Cambridge, in the district of Ninety-Six. The public and private donations for the support of these three colleges were originally intended to have been appropriated jointly, for the erecting and supporting of one respectable college. The division of these donations has frustrated this design. Part of the old barracks in Charlestown has been handsomely fitted up, and converted into a college, and there are a number of students; but it does not yet merit a more dignified name than that of a respectable academy. The Mount Sion College, at Winnsborough, is supported by a respectable society of gentlemen, who have long been incorporated. This institution flourishes and bids fair for usefulness. The college at Cambridge is no more than a grammar school. That the literature of this State might be put upon a respectable footing, nothing is wanting but a spirit of enterprize among its wealthy inhabitants.

CHARITABLE AND OTHER SOCIETIES.] These are the South Carolina, Mount Sion, Library and St. Cecilia Societies; a society for the relief of the widows and orphans of clergymen, a medical society lately instituted in Charlestown, and a musical society. At Beaufort and on St. Helena are several charitable societies, incorporated with funds to a considerable amount, designed principally for the education of poor children, and which promise, at a future day, to be of great public utility. What are called Jockey Clubs, have increased within a few years.

INDIANS.] The Catabaws are the only nation of Indians in this State. They have but one town, called Catabaw, situated on Catabaw river, in latitude 34° 49', on the boundary line between North and South Carolinas, and contains about 450 inhabitants, of which about 150 are fighting men.

It is worthy of remark, that this nation was long at war with the Six Nations, into whose country they often penetrated, which it is said no other Indian nation from the south or west ever did. The Six Nations always considered them as the bravest of their enemies, till they were surrounded by the settlements of white people, whose neighbourhood, with other concurrent causes, have rendered them corrupt and nerveless.

RELIGION.] Since the revolution, by which all denominations were put on an equal footing, there have been no disputes between different religious sects. They all agree to differ.

The upper parts of this State are settled chiefly by Presbyterians, Baptists, and Methodists. From this most probable calculations it is supposed that the religious denominations of this State, as to numbers, may be ranked as follows: Presbyterians, including the Congregational and Independent churches, Episcopalians, Baptists, Methodists, &c.

CHARACTER.] There is no peculiarity in the manners of the inhabitants of this State, except what arises from the mischievous influence of slavery; and in this, indeed, they do not differ from the inhabitants of the other southern States. Slavery,
by

by exempting great numbers from the necessities of labour, leads to luxury, dissipation, and extravagance. The absolute authority which is exercised over their slaves, too much favours a haughty supercilious behaviour. A disposition to obey the Christian precept, "Do to others as you would that others should do unto you," is not cherished by a daily exhibition of many made for one. The Carolinians sooner arrive at maturity, both in their bodies and minds, than the natives of colder climates. They possess a natural quickness and vivacity of genius, superior to the inhabitants of the north; but too generally want that enterprize and perseverance, which are necessary for the highest attainments in the arts and sciences. They have, indeed, few motives to enterprize. Inhabiting a fertile country, which, by the labour of slaves, produces plentifully, and creates affluence; in a climate which favours indulgence, ease, and a disposition for convivial pleasures, they too generally rest contented with barely knowledge enough to transact the common affairs of life. There are not a few instances, however, in this State, in which genius has been united with application; and the effects of their union have been happily experienced, not only by this State, but by the United States.

The wealth produced by the labour of the slaves, furnishes their proprietors with the means of hospitality; and no people in the world use these means with more liberality. Many of the inhabitants spare no pains or expense in giving the highest polish of education to their children, by enabling them to travel, and by other means unattainable by those who have but moderate fortunes.

The Carolinians are generally affable and easy in their manners, and polite and attentive to strangers. The ladies want the bloom of the north, but have an engaging softness and delicacy in their appearance and manners, and many of them possess the polite and elegant accomplishments.

Hunting is the most fashionable amusement in this State. At this the country gentlemen are extremely expert, and with surprising dexterity pursue their game through the woods. Gaming of all kinds is more discountenanced, among fashionable people; in this than in any of the southern States. Twice a year, stately, a class of sportive gentlemen, in this and the neighbouring States, have their horse-races. Bets of ten or fifteen hundred guineas have been sometimes laid on these occasions.

There is no instance, perhaps, in which the richer class of people trespass more on the rules of propriety than in the mode of conducting their funerals. That a decent respect be paid to the dead, is the natural dictate of refined humanity; but this is not done by sumptuous and expensive entertainments, splendid decorations, and pompous ceremonies, which a misguided fashion has here introduced and rendered necessary. In Charlestown, and other parts of the State, no persons attend a funeral any more than a wedding, unless particularly invited. Wine, punch, and all kinds of liquors, tea, coffee, cake, &c. in profusion, are handed round on these solemn occasions. In short, one would suppose that the religious proverb of the wise man, "It is better to go to the house of mourning than to the house of feasting," would be unintelligible and wholly inapplicable here, as it would be difficult to distinguish the house of mourning from the house of feasting.

MILITARY STRENGTH.] There are between 20,000 and 30,000 fighting men in this State. About ten men are kept to guard Fort Johnson, on James Island, at the entrance of Charlestown harbour, by which no vessel can pass, unless the master or mate make oath that there is no malignant distemper on board. The militia laws, enacting that every freeman, between 16 and 50 years of age, shall be prepared for war, have been but indifferently obeyed since the peace. An unusual degree of military spirit, however,

however, seems lately to have arisen among the citizens of Charlestown. No less than eight volunteer uniform companies have lately formed in this city, besides a troop of horse, and the ancient battalion of artillery.

[PUBLIC REVENUE AND EXPENSES.] The public revenue of this State is, nominally, 90,000*l.* sterling; but a great part of this is either not collected, or paid in securities, which are much depreciated. The expenses of government are about 16,000*l.* sterling.

[MODE OF LEVYING TAXES.] The great bulk of the revenue of the State is raised by a tax on lands and negroes. The lands, for the purpose of being taxed according to their value, are divided into three grand divisions; the first reaches from the sea-coast to the extent of the flowing of the tides; the second, from these points to the fall of the rivers; and thence to the utmost verge of the western settlement makes the third. These grand divisions, for the sake of more exactly ascertaining the value of the lands, are subdivided into 21 different species; the most valuable of which is estimated at six pounds, and the least valuable at one shilling per acre. One per cent. on the value thus estimated is levied from all granted lands in the State. The collection of taxes is not annexed to the office of sheriff, but is committed to particular gentlemen appointed for that purpose, who are allowed two and a half per cent. in Charlestown, and five per cent. in the other parts of the State, on all they collect.

[BANKS.] Besides a branch of the national bank, a bank, by the name of the South Carolina bank, was established in 1792 in Charlestown.

[DAMAGE BY THE LATE WAR.] The damages which this State sustained in the late war are thus estimated: the three entire crops of 1779, 1780, and 1781, all of which were used by the British; the crop of 1782, taken by the Americans; about 25,000 negroes; many thousand pounds worth of plate, and household furniture in abundance; the villages of Georgetown and Camden burnt; the loss to the citizens directly by the plunderings and devastations of the British army, and indirectly by American impressments, and by the depreciation of the paper currency, together with the heavy debt of 1,200,000*l.* sterling, incurred for the support of the war, in one aggregate view, make the price of independence to South Carolina, exclusive of the blood of its citizens, upwards of 3,000,000*l.* sterling.

[COMMERCE.] The little attention that has been paid to manufactures, occasions a vast consumption of foreign imported articles; but the quantities and value of their exports generally leave a balance in favour of the State, except when there are large importations of negroes.

The amount of exports from the port of Charlestown, in the year ending November 1787, was then estimated, from authentic documents, at 595,279*l.* 19*s.* 5*d.* sterling money. The number of vessels cleared from the custom-house the same year, was 947, measuring 62,118 tons; 735 of these, measuring 41,531 tons, were American; the others belonged to Great Britain, Spain, France, the United Netherlands, and Ireland.

The principal articles exported from this State are, rice, indigo, tobacco, skins of various kinds, beef, pork, cotton, pitch, tar, rosin, turpentine, myrtle wax, lumber, naval stores, cork, leather, pink root, snake root, ginseng, &c. In the most successful seasons, there have been as many as 140,000 barrels of rice, and 1,300,000*lbs.* of indigo, exported in a year. From the 15th of December, 1791, to September, 1792, 108,567 tierces of rice, averaging 55*lbs.* nett weight each, were exported from Charlestown. In the year ending September 30th, 1791, exclusive of two

quarters, for which no returns were made, the amount of exports from this State was 1,866,021 dollars.

PRACTICE OF LAW, COURTS, &c.] From the first settlement of this country in 1669, to the year 1769, a single court, called the Court of Common Pleas, was thought sufficient to transact the judicial business of the State. This court was invariably held at Charlestown, where all the records were kept, and all civil business transacted. As the province increased, inconveniencies arose, and created uneasiness among the people.

To remedy these inconveniencies an act was passed in 1769, by which the province was divided into seven districts, which have been mentioned. The court of common pleas (invested with the powers of the same court in England) sat four times a year in Charlestown. By the above-mentioned act, the judges of the court of common pleas were empowered to sit as judges of the court of sessions, invested with the powers of the court of king's bench in England, in the criminal jurisdiction. The act likewise directed the judges of the courts of common pleas and sessions in Charlestown district, to divide, and two of the judges to proceed on what is called the northern circuit, and the other two on the southern circuit, distributing justice in their progress. This mode of administering justice continued till 1785, when, by the unanimous exertions of the two upper districts, an act was passed, establishing county courts in all the counties of the four districts of Camden, Ninety Six, Cheraws, and Orangeburgh. The county courts are empowered to sit four times in a year. Before the establishment of county courts, the lawyers all resided at Charlestown, under the immediate eye of government; and the Carolina bar was as pure and genteel as any in the United States. Since this establishment, lawyers have flocked in from all quarters, and settled in different parts of the country, and law suits have been multiplied beyond all former knowledge.

HISTORY.] The reformation in France occasioned a civil war between the Protestant and Catholic parties in that kingdom. During these domestic troubles, Jasper de Coligni, a principal commander of the Protestant army, fitted out two ships, and sent them with a colony to America, under the command of Jean Ribaud, for the purpose of securing a retreat from prosecution. Ribaud landed at the mouth of what is now called Albemarle river, in North Carolina. This colony, after enduring incredible hardships, were extirpated by the Spaniards. No further attempts were made to plant a colony in this quarter, till the reign of Charles II. of England. Mention is, however, made of Sir Robert Heath's having obtained a grant of Carolina, from Charles I. in 1630; but no settlements were made in consequence of this grant.

In 1662, after the restoration of Charles II. Edward, Earl of Clarendon, and seven others, obtained a grant of all lands lying between the 31st and 36th degrees of north latitude.

A second charter, given two years after, enlarged their boundaries, and comprehended all that province, territory, &c. extending eastward as far as the north end of Currituck Inlet, upon a strait line westerly to Wyoake Creek, which lies within or about latitude 36° 30'; and so west, in a direct line as far as the South Sea; and south and westward as far as 29° north latitude inclusive; and so west in direct lines to the South Sea.* Of this large territory, the King constituted these eight persons absolute

Lords

* Various causes have rendered it expedient to divide this extensive territory: in 1728, North Carolina was erected into a separate province. In 1732, George II. granted to certain trustees therein mentioned, and to their successors, a charter of all that part of Carolina, lying between the most northern stream of Savannah

Lords Proprietors ; investing them with all necessary powers to settle and govern the same.

Nothing was successfully done towards the settlement of this country till 1609 ; at this time, the proprietors, in virtue of their powers, engaged the famous Mr. Locke to frame for them a constitution and body of laws. This constitution, consisting of 120 articles, was aristocratical, and though ingenious in theory, could never be successfully reduced to practice.

Three classes of nobility were to be established, viz. barons, cassiques, and land-graves. The first to possess twelve ; the second, twenty-four ; the third, forty-eight thousand acres of land, which was to be unalienable.

In 1669, William Sayle being appointed first governor of this country, embarked with a colony, and settled on the neck of land where Charlestown now stands.

During the continuance of the proprietary government, a period of 50 years, (reckoning from 1669 to 1719) the colony was involved in perpetual quarrels. Oftentimes they were harassed by the Indians ; sometimes infested with pirates : frequently invaded by the French and Spanish fleets ; constantly uneasy under their injudicious government ; and quarrelling with their governors.

But their most bitter dissensions were respecting religion. The Episcopalians being more numerous than the dissenters, attempted to exclude the latter from a seat in the legislature. These attempts so far succeeded, as that the Church of England, by

Savannah river ; along the sea coast, to the most southern stream of Alatamaha river ; westward, from the heads of these rivers, respectively in direct lines to the South Sea, inclusively, with all islands within twenty leagues of the same.

In 1762, the governor of South Carolina, conceiving that the lands lying south of Alatamaha river belonged to South Carolina, granted several tracts of said land. Upon complaint being made by the government of Georgia, of this supposed encroachment on their territory, his Majesty issued a proclamation in 1763, annexing to Georgia all the lands lying between the rivers Alatamaha and St. Mary's, but did not by this annul the Carolina grants. The boundary line, dividing the two provinces (now States) of South Carolina and Georgia, had long been the subject of controversy ; the former claiming the lands lying between the North Carolina line, and a line to run due west from the mouth of Tugulo and Keowee rivers ; consequently, that that spot was the head of Savannah river ; the latter contended, that the source of Keowee river was to be considered as the head of Savannah river.

For the purpose of settling this controversy, commissioners were appointed in April, 1787, by the contending States, vested with full powers to determine the controverted boundary, which they fixed as follows :

" The most northern branch or stream of the river Savannah, from the sea or mouth of such stream, to the fork or confluence of the rivers, now called Tugulo and Keowee, and from thence the most northern branch or stream of the said river Tugulo, till it intersects the northern boundary line of South Carolina, if the said branch of Tugulo extends so far north, reserving all the islands in the said rivers Savannah and Tugulo to Georgia : but if the said branch or stream of Tugulo does not extend to the north boundary line of South Carolina, then a west line to the Mississippi to be drawn from the head spring or source of the said branch of Tugulo river, which extends to the highest northern latitude, shall for ever hereafter form the separating limit and boundary between the States of South Carolina and Georgia."

It is supposed, in the map of this State, that the most northern branch of the Tugulo river intersects the northern boundary of South Carolina, which, if it be fact, brings the State to a point in latitude 35°, and about 8° 35' west longitude from Philadelphia ; but it is not yet ascertained whether this will be the case. If it shall be found that the most northern source of the Tugulo does not extend to latitude 35°, then South Carolina, or the United States by her assignment, will claim a strip of country extending from the meridian west to the Mississippi, in breadth from the most northern source of the Tugulo to latitude 35°, unless the treaties subsisting between the United States and the Creek Indians shall interfere and bound them as they do Georgia.

It ought to be here noted, that South Carolina, in the forementioned treaty with Georgia, gave up a claim which it had till then retained, to the lands south of the Alatamaha, as a return to Georgia for agreeing that the boundary between the two States should be the most northern branch of the Tugulo, instead of the Keowee, as had been originally insisted on by the State of Georgia. This confirms to the State of South Carolina a very rich tract of country, which had been reserved by that State for the officers and soldiers of the late army.

a majority of votes, was established by law. This illiberal act threw the colony into the utmost confusion, and was followed by a train of evil consequences, which proved to be the principal cause of the revolution which soon followed. Notwithstanding the act establishing the Church of England was repealed, tranquillity was not restored to the colony. A change of government was generally desired by the colonists. They found that they were not sufficiently protected by their proprietary constitution, and effected a revolution about the year 1719, and the government became regal.

In 1728, the proprietors accepted 22,500*l.* sterling from the crown, for the property and jurisdiction, except Lord Granville, who reserved his eighth of the property, which has never yet been formally given up. At this time the constitution was new-modelled, and the territory, limited by the original charter, was divided into North and South Carolinas.

From this period the colony began to flourish. It was protected by a government, formed on the plan of the English constitution. Under the fostering care of the Mother Country, its growth was astonishingly rapid. Between the years 1763 and 1775, the number of inhabitants was more than doubled. No one indulged a wish for a change in their political constitution, till the memorable stamp act passed in 1765.

From this period till 1775, various attempts were made by Great Britain to tax her colonies without consent; these attempts were invariably opposed. The congress, who met at Philadelphia this year, unanimously approved the opposition, and on the 19th of April war commenced.

During the vigorous contest for independence, this State was a great sufferer. For three years it was the seat of the war. It feels and laments the loss of many respectable citizens. Since the peace, it has been emerging from that melancholy confusion and poverty, in which it was generally involved by the devastations of a relentless enemy. The inhabitants are fast multiplying by emigrations from other States; the agricultural interests of the State are reviving; commerce is flourishing; economy is becoming more fashionable; and science begins to spread her salutary influences among the citizens. And under the operation of the present government, this State, from her natural, commercial, and agricultural advantages, and the abilities of her leading characters, promises to become one of the richest in the Union.

See Ramsay's History of the Revolution in South Carolina, and the History of Carolina and Georgia, anonymous, supposed to be by Hewett.

G E O R G I A.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 600 } between { 5° and 16° W. Long.
 Breadth 250 } { 31° and 35° N. Lat.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by East and West Floridas; west, by the river Mississippi; north and north-east, by South Carolina, and by lands ceded to the United States by South Carolina.

CIVIL

CIVIL DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] That part of the State which has been laid out in counties, is divided into three districts, which are subdivided into 11 counties, which, with the number of inhabitants, are as follows :

Districts.	Counties.	Chief Towns.
Lower district, contains 21,566 inhabitants.	Camden	St. Patrick's
	Glyn	Brunswick
	Liberty	Sunbury
	Chatham	SAVANNAH
	Effingham	Ebenezer
Middle district, contains 25,336 inhabitants.	Richmond	AUGUSTA
	Burke	Waynesborough
	Washington	Louisville
		Golphinton
Upper district, contains 37,946 inhabitants.	Wilkes	Washington
	Franklin	
	Green	Greensburgh

Total number of inhabitants in the State, 82,548, of whom 29,264 are slaves.

Before the revolution, Georgia, like all the southern States, was divided into parishes; but this mode of division is now abolished, and that of counties has succeeded in its room.

FACE OF THE COUNTRY.] The eastern part of the State, between the mountains and the ocean, and the rivers Savannah and St. Mary's, a tract of country more than 120 miles from north to south, and 40 or 50 east and west, is entirely level, without a hill or stone. At the distance of about 40 or 50 miles from the sea-board, or salt-marsh, the lands begin to be more or less uneven. The ridges gradually rise one above another into hills, and the hills successively increasing in height, till they finally terminate in mountains. That vast chain of mountains which commences with the Katt's Kill, near Hudson's river, in the State of New York, known by the names of the Alleghany and Apalachian Mountains, terminate in this State, about 60 miles south of its northern boundary. From the foot of this mountain spreads a wide extended plain, of the richest soil, and in a latitude and climate well adapted to the cultivation of most of the East India productions.

CLIMATE, DISEASES, &c.] In some parts of this State, at particular seasons of the year, the climate cannot be esteemed salubrious. In the low country near the rice swamps, bilious complaints, and fevers of various kinds, are pretty universal during the months of July, August, and September, which, for this reason, are called the sickly months.

The disorders peculiar to this climate originate partly from the badness of the water, which in the low country, except in and about Savannah and some other places, where good springs are found, is generally brackish, and partly from the noxious putrid vapours which are exhaled from the stagnant waters in the rice swamps. Besides, the long continuance of warm weather produces a general relaxation of the nervous system, and as a great proportion of the inhabitants have no necessary labour to call them to exercise, a large share of indolence is the natural consequence; and indolence, especially amongst a luxurious people, is ever the parent of disease. The immense quantities of spirituous liquors which are used to correct the brackishness of the water,

water, form a species of intemperance which too often proves ruinous to the constitution. Parents of infirm, sickly habits, often, in more senses than one, have children of their own likeness. A considerable part of the diseases of the present inhabitants may therefore be considered as hereditary.

Before the sickly season commences, many of the rich planters of this State remove with their families to the sea islands, or some elevated healthy situation, where they reside three or four months, for the benefit of the fresh air. In the winter and spring, pleurifies, peripneumonies, and other inflammatory disorders, occasioned by sudden and violent colds, are considerably common and frequently fatal. Consumptions, epilepsies, cancers, palsies, and apoplexies, are not so common among the inhabitants of the southern as northern climates.

The winters in Georgia are very mild and pleasant. Snow is seldom or never seen. Vegetation is not frequently prevented by severe frosts. Cattle subsist tolerably well through the winter, without any other food than what they obtain in the woods and savannahs, and are fatter in that season than in any other. In the hilly country, which begins about fifty, and in some places one hundred miles from the sea, the air is pure and salubrious, and the water plenty and good. From June to September, the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer commonly fluctuates from 76° to 90° ; in winter, from 40° to 60° . The most prevailing winds are south-west and east; in winter, north-west. The east wind is warmest in winter and coolest in summer. The south wind, in summer and fall particularly, is damp, sultry, unelastic, and of course unhealthy.

In the south-east parts of this State, which lie within a few degrees of the torrid zone, the atmosphere is kept in motion by impressions from the trade winds. This serves to purify the air, and render it fit for respiration; so that it is found to have a very advantageous effect on persons of consumptive habits.

RIVERS.] Savannah river divides this State from South Carolina. Its course is nearly from north-west to south-east. It is formed principally of two branches, by the names of Tugulo and Keowee, which spring from the mountains, and unite fifteen miles north-west of the northern boundary of Wilkes county. It is navigable for large vessels up to Savannah, and for boats of one hundred feet keel as far as Augusta. After rising a fall just above this place, it is passable for boats to the mouth of Tugulo river. After it takes the name of Savannah, at the confluence of the Tugulo and Keowee, it receives a number of tributary streams, from the Georgia side, the principal of which is Broad river, which rises in the county of Franklin, and runs south-east through part of Wilkes county, and mingles with Savannah at the town of Petersburg, and might, with a trifling expense, be made boatable twenty-five or thirty miles through the best settlements in Wilkes county. Tybee bar, at the entrance of Savannah river, in latitude $31^{\circ} 57'$, has sixteen feet water at half tide.

Ogeechee river, about eighteen miles south of the Savannah, is a smaller river, and nearly parallel with it in its course.

Altamaha,* about sixty miles south of Savannah river, has its source in the Cherokee mountains, near the head of Tugulo, the great west branch of Savannah, and, before it leaves the mountains, is joined and augmented by innumerable rivulets; thence it descends through the hilly country, with all its collateral branches, and winds rapidly amongst hills two hundred and fifty miles, and then enters the flat, plain country, by the name of the Oakmulge; thence meandering one hundred and fifty miles, it is joined on the east side by the Ocone, which likewise heads in the lower ridges

* Pronounced Oltamawhaw.

ridges of the mountains. After this confluence, having now gained a vast acquisition of waters, it assumes the name of Alatomaha, when it becomes a large majestic river, flowing with gentle windings through a vast plain forest, near one hundred miles, and enters the Atlantic by several mouths. The north channel, or entrance, glides by the heights of Darien, on the east bank, about ten miles above the bar, and, running from thence with several turnings, enters the ocean between Sapello and Wolf islands. The south channel, which is esteemed the largest and deepest, after its separation from the north, descends gently, winding by M'Intosh's and Broughton islands; and lastly, by the west coast of St. Simon's island, enters the ocean, through St. Simon's sound, between the south end of the island of that name and the north end of Jekyll island. On the west banks of the south channel, ten or twelve miles above its mouth, and nearly opposite Darien, are to be seen the remains of an ancient fort, or fortification; it is now a regular tetragon terrace, about four feet high, with bastions at each angle; the area may contain about an acre of ground, but the fosse which surrounded it is nearly filled up. There are large live oaks, pines, and other trees, growing upon it, and in the old fields adjoining. It is supposed to have been the work of the French or Spaniards. A large swamp lies betwixt it and the river, and a considerable creek runs close by the works, and enters the river through the swamp, a small distance above Broughton island. About seventy or eighty miles above the confluence of the Oakmulge and Ocone, the trading path from Augusta to the Creek nation, crosses these fine rivers, which are there forty miles apart. On the east banks of the Oakmulge, this trading road runs nearly two miles through ancient Indian fields, which are called the Oakmulge fields; they are the rich low lands of the river. On the heights of these low grounds are yet visible monuments or traces of an ancient town, such as artificial mounts or terraces, squares, and banks, encircling considerable areas. Their old fields and planting land extend up and down the river, fifteen or twenty miles from this site. And, if we are to give credit to the account the Creeks give of themselves, this place is remarkable for being the first town or settlement, when they sat down (as they term it) or established themselves, after their emigration from the west, beyond the Mississippi, their original native country.

Besides these, there is Turtle river, Little Sitilla or St. Ille, Great Sitilla, Crooked river, and St. Mary's, which form a part of the southern boundary of the United States. St. Mary's river has its source from a vast lake, or rather marsh, called Onaquaphenogaw, hereafter described, and flows through a vast plain and pine forest, about one hundred and fifty miles to the ocean, with which it communicates between the points of Amelia and Talbert's islands, latitude $30^{\circ} 44'$, and is navigable for vessels of considerable burthen for ninety miles. Its banks afford immense quantities of fine timber, suited to the West India market. Along this river, every four or five miles, are bluffs convenient for vessels to haul to and load.

The rivers in the middle and western parts of this State are, Apalachicola, which is formed by the Chatahouchee and Flint rivers, Mobile, Pascagoula, and Pearl rivers. All these running southwardly, empty into the Gulf of Mexico. The forementioned rivers abound with a great variety of fish, among which are the mullet, whiting, sheepshead, cat, rock, trout, drum, bass, brim, white, shad, and sturgeon. The bays and lagoons are stored with oysters, and other shell fish, crabs, shrimps, &c. The clams, in particular, are large, their meat white, tender, and delicate. The shark and great black stingray are insatiable cannibals, and very troublesome to the fishermen.

LAKES AND SWAMPS.] The lake, or rather marsh, called Ouaquaphenogaw, lies between Flint and Oakmulgé rivers, and is nearly three hundred miles in circumference. In wet seasons it appears like an inland sea, and has several large islands of rich land; one of which the present generation of Creek Indians represent as the most blissful spot on earth. They say it is inhabited by a peculiar race of Indians, whose women are incomparably beautiful. They tell you also that this terrestrial paradise has been seen by some enterprising hunters, when in pursuit of their game, who being lost in inextricable swamps and bogs, and on the point of perishing, were unexpectedly relieved by a company of beautiful women, whom they call daughters of the Sun, who kindly gave them such provisions as they had with them, consisting of fruit and corn-cakes, and then enjoined them to fly for safety to their own country, because their husbands were fierce men, and cruel to strangers. They further say that these hunters had a view of their settlements, situated on the elevated banks of an island, in a beautiful lake; but that in their endeavours to approach it, they were involved in perpetual labyrinths, and, like enchanted land, still as they imagined they had just gained it, it seemed to fly before them. They determined at length to quit the delusive pursuit, and with much difficulty effected a retreat. When they reported their adventures to their countrymen, the young warriors were inflamed with an irresistible desire to invade and conquer so charming a country, but all their attempts had hitherto proved fruitless, they never being able again to find the spot. They tell another story concerning this sequestered country, which seems not improbable, which is, that the inhabitants are the posterity of a fugitive remnant of the ancient Yamases, who escaped massacre after a bloody and decisive battle between them and the Creeks, (who, it is certain, conquered and nearly exterminated that once powerful people) and here found an asylum, remote and secure from the fury of their proud conquerors.

The rivers St. Mary, Sitilla or St. Ille, and the beautiful Little St. Juan, which empties into the Bay of Apalachi at St. Mark's, are said to flow from this lake.*

About sixteen miles from the mouth of Broad river, on its south side, is what is called the Geosepond, a tract of about one hundred and eighty acres, covered with living water about two feet deep. It discharges into the river, and is fed by two springs.

CHIEF TOWNS.] The present seat of government in this State is AUGUSTA. It is situated on the south-west bank of Savannah river, which is here about five hundred yards wide, about one hundred and forty-four miles from the sea, and one hundred and twenty-seven north-west of Savannah. The town, which in 1787 contained two hundred houses, is on a fine large plain, at the foot of the first falls in the river, which in a dry season are four or five feet in height; and as it enjoys the best soil, and the advantage of a central situation between the upper and lower counties, is rising fast into importance. In 1782 there were but three or four houses in the town.

SAVANNAH, the former capital of Georgia, stands on a high sandy bluff, on the south side of the river of the same name, and seventeen miles from its mouth. The town is regularly built in the form of a parallelogram, and, including its suburbs, contained, in 1787, two hundred and twenty-seven dwelling houses, one Episcopal church, a Presbyterian church, a Synagogue, and a court house. The number of its inhabitants, exclusive of the blacks, amounted at that time to about eight hundred and thirty, seventy of whom were Jews.

In Savannah, and within a circumference of about ten miles from it, there were, in the summer of 1787, about 2300 inhabitants. Of these one hundred and ninety-two were above fifty years of age, and all in good health. The ages of a lady and her six children, then living in the town, amounted to three hundred and eighty-five years. This computation, which was actually made, serves to shew that Savannah is not really so unhealthy as has been commonly represented.

SUNBURY is a sea port town, favoured with a safe and very convenient harbour. Several small islands intervene, and partly obstruct a distant view of the ocean; and, interlocking with each other, render the passage out to sea winding, but not difficult. It is a very pleasant, healthy town, and is the resort of the planters from the adjacent places of Midway and Newport, during the sickly months. It was burnt by the British in the late war, but has since been rebuilt. An academy was established here in 1788, which, under an able instructor, has proved a very useful institution.

BRUNSWICK, in Glynn county, latitude $31^{\circ} 10'$, is situated at the mouth of Turtle river, at which place this river empties itself into St. Simon's sound. Brunswick has a safe and capacious harbour; and the bar, at the entrance into it, has water deep enough for the largest vessel that swims. The town is regularly laid out, but not yet built. From its advantageous situation, and from the fertility of the back country, it promises to be hereafter one of the first trading towns in Georgia.

FREDERICA, on the island of St. Simon, is nearly in latitude $31^{\circ} 15'$; it is one of the oldest towns in Georgia, and was founded by General Oglethorpe. The fortress was regular and beautiful, constructed chiefly with brick, and is now in ruins. The town contains but few houses, which stand on an eminence, if considered with regard to the marshes before it, upon a branch of Altamaha river, which washes the west side of this agreeable island, and forms a bay before the town, affording a safe and secure harbour for vessels of the largest burthens, which may lie along the wharf.

WASHINGTON, the chief town in the county of Wilts, is situated in latitude $33^{\circ} 22'$, about fifty miles north-west of Augusta; it had, in 1788, a court house, gaol, thirty-four dwelling houses, and an academy, whose funds amounted to about 800*l.* sterling, and the number of students to between sixty and seventy.

The town of LOUISVILLE, which is designed as the future seat of government in this State, has been laid out on the bank of Ogeechee river, about seventy miles from its mouth, but is not yet built.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, &c.] The soil and its fertility are various, according to situation and different improvement. The islands on the sea board, in their natural state, are covered with a plentiful growth of pine, oak, and hickory, live oak, (an uncommonly hard and a very valuable wood) and some red cedar. The soil is a mixture of sand and black mould, making what is commonly called a grey soil. A considerable part of it, particularly that whereon grow the oak, hickory, and live oak, is very rich, and yields, on cultivation, good crops of indigo, cotton, corn, and potatoes. These islands are surrounded by navigable creeks, between which and the main land is a large extent of salt marsh, fronting the whole State, not less, on an average, than four or five miles in breadth, intersected with creeks in various directions, admitting, through the whole, an inland navigation between the islands and main land, from the north-east to the south-east corners of the State. The east sides of these islands are, for the most part, clean, hard, sandy beaches, exposed to the wash of the ocean. Between these islands are the entrances of the rivers from the interior country, winding through the low salt marshes, and delivering their waters into the

sounds, which form capacious harbours of from three to eight miles over, and which communicate with each other by parallel salt creeks. The principal islands are Skidaway, Wafflaw, Ossabaw, St. Catharine's, Sapelo, Frederica, Jekyl, Cumberland, and Amelia.

The soil of the main land, adjoining the marshes and creeks, is nearly of the same quality with that of the islands, except that which borders on these rivers and creeks which stretch far back into the country. On these, immediately after you leave the salts, begin the valuable rice swamps, which, on cultivation, afford the present principal staple of commerce. The most of the rice lands lie on rivers, which, as far as the tide flows, are called tide lands; or on creeks and particular branches of water, flowing in some deeper or lower parts of the lands, which are called inland swamps, and extend back in the country from fifteen to twenty-five miles, beyond which very little rice is planted, though it will grow exceedingly well, as experiment has proved, one hundred and twenty miles back from the sea. The intermediate lands, between these creeks and rivers, are of an inferior quality, being of a grey soil, covered chiefly with pine, and a sort of wild grass and small reeds, which afford a large range of feeding ground for stock both summer and winter. Here and there are interspersed oak and hickory ridges, which are of a better soil, and produce good crops of corn and indigo; but these are very little elevated above the circumjacent lands. The lands adjoining the rivers, and, for an hundred miles in a direct line from the sea, continue a breadth from two to three or four miles, and wherever, in that distance, you find a piece of high land that extends to the bank of the river on one side, you may expect to find the low or swamp ground proportionably wide on the opposite side of the river. This seems to be an invariable rule till you come to that part where the river cuts the mountains.

The soil between the rivers, after you leave the sea board and the edge of the swamps, at the distance of twenty or thirty miles, changes from a grey to a red colour, on which grows plenty of oak and hickory, with a considerable intermixture of pine. In some places it is gravelly, but fertile, and so continues for a number of miles, gradually deepening the reddish colour of the earth, till it changes into what is called the Mulatto soil, consisting of a black mould and red earth. The composition is darker or lighter according as there is a larger or smaller proportion of the black or red earth in it. The mulatto lands are generally strong, and yield large crops of wheat, tobacco, corn, &c. To this kind of land succeeds by turns a soil nearly black and very rich, on which grow large quantities of black walnut, mulberry, &c. This succession of different soils continues uniform and regular, though there are some large veins of all the different soils intermixed; and what is more remarkable, this succession, in the order mentioned, stretches across this State nearly parallel with the sea coast, and extends through the several States, nearly in the same direction, to the banks of Hudson's river. In this State are produced by culture, rice, indigo, cotton, silk, (though not in large quantities) Indian corn, potatoes, oranges, figs, pomegranates, &c. Rice, at present, is the staple commodity; and as a small proportion only of the rice ground is under cultivation, the quantity raised in future must be much greater than at present. But the rapid increase of the inhabitants, chiefly by emigrations, whose attention is turned to the raising of tobacco, and the vast extent of land, with a richness of soil suited to the culture of that plant, renders it probable, that tobacco will shortly become the staple of this State. Cotton was formerly planted only by the poorer class of people, and that only for family use. They planted of two kinds, the annual and the West Indian; the former is low and planted every year. The balls of this are very large,

large, and the phlox long, strong, and perfectly white. The latter is a tall perennial plant, the stalk somewhat shrubby, several of which rise up from the root for several years successively, the stems of the former year being killed by the winter frosts. The balls of West India cotton are not quite so large as the other, but the phlox or wool is long, extremely fine, silky, and white. A plantation of this kind will last several years with moderate labour and care. The culture of cotton is now much more attended to: several indigo planters have converted their plantations into cotton fields. The tobacco lands are equally well adapted to wheat, which may hereafter make an important article of commerce.

On the dry plains grow large crops of sweet potatoes, which are found to afford a wholesome nourishment, and from which is made, by distillation, a kind of whisky, tolerably good, but inferior to that made of rye. It is by properly macerating and washing this root that a sediment or starch is made, which has obtained the name of fago, and answers all the purposes of the Indian fago.

Most of the tropical fruits would flourish in this State with proper attention. The rice plant has been transplanted, and also the tea plant, of which such immense quantities are consumed in the United States, was introduced into Georgia, by Mr. Samuel Bowen, about the year 1770, from India. The seed was disseminated, and the plant now grows, without cultivation, in most of the fenced lots in Savannah.

From many considerations we may, perhaps, venture to predict, that the south-western part of the State, and the parts of East and West Florida, which lie adjoining, will, in some future time, become the vineyard of America.

REMARKABLE SPRING.] In the county of Wilkes, within a mile and a half of the town of Washington, is a medicinal spring, which rises from a hollow tree, four or five feet in length. The inside of the tree is covered with a coat of matter, an inch thick, and the leaves around the spring are incrustated with a substance as white as snow. It is said to be a sovereign remedy for the scurvy, scrophulous disorders, consumptions, gouts, and every other disease arising from humours in the blood. A person, who had a severe rheumatism in his right arm, having, in the space of ten minutes, drank two quarts of the water, experienced a momentary chill, and was then thrown into a perspiration, which, in a few hours, left him entirely free from pain, and in perfect health.

This spring, situated in a fine healthy part of the State, in the neighbourhood of Washington, where are excellent accommodations, will no doubt prove a pleasant and salutary place of resort for invalids from the maritime and unhealthy parts of this and the neighbouring States.

CURIOSITIES.] One of the greatest curiosities in this State is the bank of oyster shells in the vicinity of Augusta, 90 miles from the sea, already described, page 139.

COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, AND AGRICULTURE.] The chief articles of export are rice, tobacco, (of which the county of Wilkes only exported, in 1788, about 3000 hogsheads) indigo, fago, lumber of various kinds, naval stores, leather, deer skins, snake root, myrtle and bees wax, corn, and live stock. The planters and farmers raise large stocks of cattle, from 100 to 1500 head, and some more.

The value, in sterling money, of the exports of Georgia, for eighteen years, from 1755 to 1772, was as follows:

1755 -	£. 15,744	1761 -	£. 15,870	1767 -	£. 67,092
1756 -	16,776	1762 -	27,021	1768 -	92,234
1757 -	15,649	1763 -	47,551	1769 -	86,485
1758 -	8,613	1764 -	55,025	1770 -	99,383
1759 -	12,694	1765 -	73,426	1771 -	106,337
1760 -	20,852	1766 -	81,228	1772 -	121,677

Statement of the number of vessels cleared out of Georgia, from 1755 to 1772.

	Square rigged.	Sloops.	Tons.		Square rigged.	Sloops.	Tons.
1755,	9	43	1,899	1764,	36	79	5,586
1756,	7	35	1,799	1765,	54	94	7,685
1757,	11	33	1,559	1766,	68	86	9,974
1758,	4	17	665	1767,	62	92	8,465
1759,	13	35	1,981	1768,	77	109	10,406
1760,	7	30	1,457	1769,	87	94	9,276
1761,	9	36	1,604	1770,	73	113	10,514
1762,	22	35	2,784	1771,	64	121	9,553
1763,	34	58	4,761	1772,	84	133	11,246

The amount of exports in the year ending September 30th, 1791, was 491,472 dollars. In return for the enumerated exports are imported West India goods, teas, wines, various articles of clothing, and dry goods of all kinds—From the northern States, cheese, fish, potatoes, apples, cyder, and shoes. The imports and exports of this State are principally to and from Savannah, which has a fine harbour, and is a place where the principal commercial business of the State is transacted. The trade with the Indians in furs and skins was very considerable before the war, but has since been interrupted by the wars in which they have been involved. The manufactures of this State have hitherto been very inconsiderable, if we except indigo, silk, and sago. The manner in which the indigo is cultivated and manufactured is as follows: The ground, which must be a strong rich soil, is thrown into beds of seven or eight feet wide, after having been made very mellow, and is then raked till it is fully pulverized: the seed is then sown in April, in rows at such a distance as conveniently to admit of hoeing between them. In July the first crop is fit to cut, being commonly two and a half feet high; it is then thrown into vats constructed for the purpose, and steeped about 30 hours; after which, the liquor is drawn off into other vats, where it is *beat*, as they call it, by which means it is thrown into much such a state of agitation as cream is by churning. After this process, lime water is put into the liquor, which causes the particles of indigo to settle at the bottom. The liquor is then drawn off, and the sediment, which is the indigo, is taken out and spread on cloths, and partly dried; it is then put into boxes and pressed, and, while it is yet soft, cut into square pieces, which are thrown into the sun to dry, and then put up in casks for the market. They have commonly three cuttings a season. A middling crop for 30 acres is 1300 pounds.

The culture of silk and the manufacture of sago are at present but little attended to. The people in the lower part of this State manufacture none of their own clothing for themselves or their negroes: for almost every article of their wearing apparel, as well as for their husbandry tools, they depend on their merchants, who import them from Great Britain and the northern States. In the upper parts of the country, however, the

the inhabitants manufacture the chief part of their clothing from cotton, hemp, and flax.

CHARACTER AND MANNERS.] No general character will apply to the inhabitants at large. Collected from different parts of the world, as interest, necessity, or inclination led them, their character and manners must, of course, partake of all the varieties which distinguish the several states and kingdoms from whence they came. There is so little uniformity, that it is difficult to trace any governing principles among them. An aversion to labour is too predominant, owing in part to the relaxing heat of the climate, and partly to the want of necessity to excite industry. An open and friendly hospitality, particularly to strangers, is an ornamental characteristic of a great part of this people.

Their diversions are various. With some, dancing is a favourite amusement; others take a fancied pleasure at the gaming table, which, however, frequently terminates in the ruin of their happiness, fortunes, and constitutions. In the upper counties, horse-racing and cock-fighting prevail, two cruel diversions imported from Virginia and the Carolinas, from whence those who practise them principally emigrated. But the most rational and universal amusement is hunting; and for this Georgia is particularly well calculated, as the woods abound with plenty of deer, racoons, rabbits, wild turkeys, and other game; at the same time the woods are so thin and free from obstructions, that you may generally ride half speed in chace without danger: in this amusement pleasure and profit are blended. The exercise, more than any other, contributes to health, fits for activity in business and expertness in war; the game also affords them a palatable food, and the skins a profitable article of commerce.

RELIGION.] The inhabitants of this State, who profess the Christian religion, are of the Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Baptist, and Methodist denominations. They have but a few regular ministers among them.

CONSTITUTION.] The present constitution of this State was formed and established in the year 1789, and is nearly upon the plan of the constitution of the United States.

STATE OF LITERATURE.] The literature of this State, which is yet in its infancy, is commencing on a plan which affords the most flattering prospects. It seems to have been the design of the legislature of this State, as far as possible, to unite their literary concerns, and provide for them in common, that the whole might feel the benefit, and no part be neglected or left a prey to party rage, private prejudices and contentions, and consequent ignorance, their inseparable attendant. For this purpose, the literature of this State, like its policy, appears to be considered as one object, and in the same manner subject to common and general regulations for the good of the whole. The charter, containing their present system of education, was passed in the year 1785. A college, with ample and liberal endowments, is instituted in Louisville, a high and healthy part of the country, near the center of the State. There is also provision made for the institution of an academy in each county in the State, to be supported from the same funds, and considered as parts and members of the same institution, under the general superintendence and direction of a president and board of trustees, appointed, for their literary accomplishments, from the different parts of the State, invested with the customary powers of corporations. The institution thus composed, is denominated, "The University of Georgia."

That this body of literati, to whom is intrusted the direction of the general literature of the State, may not be so detached and independent, as not to possess the confidence of the State; and, in order to secure the attention and patronage of the principal officers of government, the governor and council, the speaker of the House of Assembly, and

and the chief justice of the State, are associated with the board of trustees, in some of the great and more solemn duties of their office, such as making the laws, appointing the president, settling the property, and instituting academies. Thus associated, they are denominated, "The Senate of the University," and are to hold a stated, annual meeting, at which the governor of the State presides.

The Senate appoint a board of commissioners in each county, for the particular management and direction of the academy, and the other schools in each county, who are to receive their instructions from, and are accountable to the senate. The rector of each academy is an officer of the university, to be appointed by the president, with the advice of the trustees, and commissioned under the public seal, and is to attend with the other officers at the annual meeting of the senate, to deliberate on the general interests of literature, and to determine on the course of instruction for the year, throughout the university. The president has the general charge and oversight of the whole, and is from time to time to visit them, to examine into their order and performances.

The funds for the support of their institution are principally in lands, amounting in the whole to about fifty thousand acres, a great part of which is of the best quality, and at present very valuable. There are also nearly six thousand pounds sterling in bonds, houses and town lots in the town of Augusta. Other public property, to the amount of 1000l. in each county, has been set apart for the purposes of building and furnishing their respective academies.

INDIANS.] The Muskogee or Creek Indians inhabit the middle part of this State, and are the most numerous tribe of Indians of any within the limits of the United States: their whole number some years since was 17,280, of which 5,860 were fighting men. They are composed of various tribes, who, after bloody wars, thought it good policy to unite and support themselves against the Chactaws, &c. They consist of the Appalaches, Alibamas, Abecas, Cawittaws, Coofas, Conshacks, Coofactees, Chactihoomas, Natchez, Oconies, Oakmulgies, Okolhoys, Pakanas, Taenfas, Talepoofas, Weetumkas, and some others. Their union has rendered them victorious over the Chactaws, and formidable to all the nations around them. They are a well-made, expert, hardy, sagacious, politic people, extremely jealous of their rights, and averse to parting with their lands. They have abundance of tame cattle and swine, turkeys, ducks, and other poultry; they cultivate tobacco, rice, Indian corn, potatoes, beans, peas, cabbage, melons, and have plenty of peaches, plums, grapes, strawberries, and other fruits. They are faithful friends, but inveterate enemies; hospitable to strangers, and honest and fair in their dealings. No nation has a more contemptible opinion of the white mens' faith in general than these people, yet they place great confidence in the United States, and wish to agree with them upon a permanent boundary, over which the southern States shall not trespass.

The country which they claim is bounded northward by about the 34th degree of latitude, and extends from the Tombeckbee, or Mobile river, to the Atlantic ocean, though they have ceded a part of this tract on the sea coast, by different treaties, to the State of Georgia. Their principal towns lie in latitude 32°, and longitude 11° 20' from Philadelphia. They are settled in a hilly but not mountainous country. The soil is fruitful in a high degree, and well watered, abounding in creeks and rivulets, from whence they are called the *Creek Indians*.*

The

* General M'Gillivray, the celebrated Chief of the Creeks, is a half-blooded Indian, his mother being a woman of high rank in the Creek nation. He was so highly esteemed among them, that they in a formal manner elected him their sovereign, and vested him with considerable powers. He has several sisters married to leading

The Chacaws, or flat heads, inhabit a very fine and extensive tract of hilly country, with large and fertile plains intervening; between the Alabama and Mississippi rivers, in the western part of this State. This nation had, not many years ago, 43 towns and villages, in three divisions, containing 12,123 souls, of which 4,041 were fighting men.

The Chickasaws are settled on the head branches of the Tombeckbee, Mobile, and Yazoo rivers, in the north-west corner of the State. Their country is an extensive plain, tolerably well watered from springs, and of a pretty good soil. They have seven towns, the central one of which is in latitude $34^{\circ} 23'$, and longitude $14^{\circ} 30'$ west. The number of souls in this nation have been formerly reckoned at 1725, of which 575 were fighting men.

HISTORY.] The settlement of a colony between the rivers Savannah and Alatomaha was meditated in England in 1732, for the accommodation of poor people in Great Britain and Ireland, and for the further security of Carolina. Private compassion and public spirit conspired to promote the benevolent design. Humane and opulent men suggested a plan of transporting a number of indigent families to this part of America, free of expense. For this purpose they applied to the King, George the II. and obtained from him letters patent, bearing date June 9th, 1732, for legally carrying into execution what they had generously projected. They called the new province GEORGIA, in honour of the King, who encouraged the plan. A corporation, consisting of twenty-one persons, was constituted by the name of the trustees for settling and establishing the colony of Georgia; which was separated from Carolina by the river Savannah. The trustees having first set an example themselves, by largely contributing to the scheme, undertook also to solicit benefactions from others, and to apply the money towards clothing, arming, purchasing utensils for cultivation, and transporting such poor people as should consent to go over and begin a settlement. They did not confine their charitable views to the subjects of Britain alone, but wisely opened a door for the indigent and oppressed protestants of other nations. To prevent a misapplication of the money, it was deposited in the bank of England.

About the middle of July, 1732, the trustees for Georgia held their first meeting, and chose Lord Percival president of the corporation, and ordered a common seal to be made. In November following, 116 settlers embarked for Georgia, to be conveyed thither free of expense, furnished with every thing requisite for building and for cultivating the soil. James Oglethorpe, one of the trustees, and an active promoter of the settlement, embarked as the head and director of these settlers. They arrived at Charlestown early in the next year, where they met a friendly reception from the governor and council. Mr. Oglethorpe, accompanied by William Bull, shortly after his arrival visited Georgia, and after reconnoitering the country, marked the spot on which Savannah now stands, as the fittest to begin a settlement. Here they accordingly began and built a small fort, and a number of small huts for their defence and accommodation. Such of the settlers as were able to bear arms were embodied, and well appointed with officers, arms, and ammunition. A treaty of friendship was concluded between the settlers and their neighbours, and the Creek Indians, and every thing wore the aspect of peace and future prosperity.

leading men among the Creeks. This gentleman would gladly have remained a citizen of the United States; but having served under the British during the late war, his property in Georgia, which was considerable, was confiscated. This circumstance induced him to retire among his friends the Creeks, since which he has been an active and zealous partisan in their interests and politics.

In the mean time the trustees of Georgia had been employed in framing a plan of settlement, and establishing such public regulations as they judged most proper for answering the great end of the corporation. In the general plan they considered each inhabitant both as a planter and a soldier, who must be provided with arms and ammunition for defence, as well as with tools and utensils for cultivation. As the strength of the province was the object in view, they agreed to establish such tenures for holding lands in it as they judged most favourable for military establishment. Each tract of land granted was considered as a military fief, for which the possessor was to appear in arms, and take the field, when called upon for the public defence. To prevent large tracts from falling, in process of time, to one person, they agreed to grant their lands in tail male, in preference to tail general. On the termination of the estate in tail male, the lands were to revert to the trust; and such lands thus reverting were to be granted again to such persons, as the common council of the trust should judge most advantageous for the colony; only the trustees in such a case were to pay special regard to the daughters of such persons as had made improvements on their lots, especially when not already provided for by marriage. The wives of such persons as should survive them, were to be, during their lives, entitled to the mansion house, and one half of the lands improved by their husbands. No man was to be permitted to depart the province without license. If any of the lands granted by the trustees shall not be cultivated, cleared, and fenced round about with a worm fence, or pales, six feet high, within eighteen years from the date of the grant, such part was to revert to the trust, and the grant with respect to it to be void. All forfeitures for non-residences, high treasons, felonies, &c. were to the trustees for the use and benefit of the colony. The use of negroes to be absolutely prohibited, and also the importation of rum. None of the colonists were to be permitted to trade with the Indians, but such as should obtain a special license for that purpose.

These were some of the fundamental regulations established by the trustees of Georgia, and perhaps the imagination could scarcely have framed a system of rules worse adapted to the circumstances and situation of the poor settlers, and of more pernicious consequence to the prosperity of the province. Yet, although the trustees were greatly mistaken, with respect to the plan of settlement, it must be acknowledged their views were generous. As the people sent out by them were the poor and unfortunate, who were to be provided with necessaries at their public store, they received their lands upon condition of cultivation, and, by their personal residence, of defence. Silk and wine being the chief articles intended to be raised, they judged negroes were not requisite for these purposes. As the colony was designed to be a barrier to South Carolina against the Spanish settlement at Augustine, they imagined that negroes would rather weaken than strengthen it, and that such poor colonists would run in debt, and ruin themselves by purchasing them. Rum was judged pernicious to health, and ruinous to the infant settlement. A free trade with Indians was a thing that might have a tendency to involve the people in quarrels and troubles with the powerful savages, and expose them to danger and destruction. Such were probably the motives which induced those humane and generous persons to impose such foolish and ridiculous restrictions on their colony. For by granting their small estates in tail male, they drove the settlers from Georgia, who soon found that abundance of lands could be obtained in America upon a larger scale, and on much better terms. By the prohibition of negroes they rendered it impracticable in such a climate to make any impression on the thick forests, Europeans being utterly unqualified for the heavy task. By their discharging a trade with the West Indies, they deprived the colonists of an excellent and convenient market

ket for their lumber, of which they had abundance on their lands. The trustees, like other distant legislators, who framed their regulations upon principles of speculation, were liable to many errors and mistakes; and however good their design, their rules were found improper and impracticable. The Carolinians plainly perceived that they would prove insurmountable obstacles to the progress and prosperity of the colony, and therefore from motives of pity began to invite the poor Georgians to come over Savannah river and settle in Carolina, being convinced that they could never succeed under such impolitic and oppressive restrictions.

Besides the large sums of money which the trustees had expended for the settlement of Georgia, the parliament had also granted, during the two last years, 36,000*l.* towards carrying into execution the humane purpose of the corporation. But after the representation and memorial from the legislature of Carolina reached Britain, the nation considered Georgia to be of the utmost importance to the British settlements in America, and began to make still more vigorous efforts for its speedy population. The first embarkations of poor people from England, being collected from towns and cities, were found equally idle and useless members of society abroad as they had been at home. An hardy and bold race of men, inured to rural labour and fatigue, they were persuaded would be much better adapted both for cultivation and defence. To find men possessed of these qualifications, they turned their eyes to Germany and the Highlands of Scotland, and resolved to send over a number of Scotch and German labourers to their infant province. When they published their terms at Inverness, an hundred and thirty Highlanders immediately accepted them, and were transported to Georgia. A township on the river Alatamaha, which was considered as the boundary between the British and Spanish territories, was allotted for the Highlanders, in which dangerous situation they settled, and built a town, which they called New Inverness. About the same time an hundred and seventy Germans embarked with James Oglethorpe, and were fixed in another quarter; so that, in the space of three years, Georgia received above four hundred British subjects, and about an hundred and seventy foreigners. Afterwards, several adventurers, both from Scotland and Germany, followed their countrymen, and added farther strength to the province, and the trustees flattered themselves with the hope of soon seeing it in a promising condition.

Their hopes, however, were vain: their injudicious regulations and restrictions, the wars in which they were involved with the Spaniards and Indians, and the frequent insurrections among themselves, threw the colony into a state of confusion and wretchedness too great for human nature to endure. Their oppressed situation was represented to the trustees by repeated complaints; till at length, finding that the province languished under their care, and weary with the complaints of the people, they, in the year 1752, surrendered their charter to the King, and it was made a royal government. In consequence of which, his Majesty appointed John Reynolds, an officer of the navy, governor of the province, and a legislature, similar to that of the other royal governments in America, was established in it. Great had been the expense which the mother country had already incurred, besides private benefactions, for supporting this colony; and small had been the returns yet made by it. The vestiges of cultivation were scarcely perceptible in the forests, and in England all commerce with it was neglected and despised. At this time the whole annual exports of Georgia did not amount to 10,000*l.* sterling. Though the people were now favoured with the same liberties and privileges enjoyed by their neighbours under the royal care, yet several years more elapsed before the value of the lands in Georgia was known, and that spirit

of industry broke out in it, which afterwards diffused its happy influence over the country.

In the year 1740, the Rev. George Whitefield founded an orphan house academy in Georgia, about 12 miles from Savannah. For the support of this, in his itinerations, he collected large sums of money of all denominations of Christians, both in England and America. A part of this money was expended in erecting proper buildings to accommodate the students, and a part in supporting them. In 1768, it was proposed that the orphan house should be erected into a college; whereupon Mr. Whitefield applied to the crown for a charter. In consequence of some dispute, the affair of a charter was given up, and Mr. Whitefield made his assignment of the orphan house in trust to the Countess of Huntingdon. Mr. Whitefield died at Newbury Port, in New England, September 30th, 1770, in the 56th year of his age, and was buried under the Presbyterian church in that place.

Soon after his death, a charter was granted to his institution in Georgia, and the Rev. Mr. Percy was appointed president of the college. Mr. Percy accordingly came over to execute his office, but, unfortunately, on the 30th of May, 1775, the orphan house building caught fire, and was entirely consumed, except the two wings, which are still remaining. The American war soon after came on, and put every thing into confusion, and the funds have ever since lain in an unproductive state. It is probable that the college estate, by the consent of the Countess of Huntingdon, may hereafter be so incorporated with the university of Georgia, as to subserve the original and pious purposes of its founder.

From the time Georgia became a royal government, in 1752, till the peace of Paris, in 1763, she struggled under many difficulties, arising from the want of credit from friends, and the frequent molestations of enemies. The good effects of the peace were sensibly felt in the province of Georgia. From this time it began to flourish, under the fatherly care of Governor Wright. To form a judgement of the rapid growth of the colony, we need only attend to its exports in the foregoing table.

During the late war, Georgia was over-run by the British troops, and the inhabitants were obliged to flee into the neighbouring States for safety. The sufferings and losses of her citizens were as great, in proportion to their numbers and wealth, as in any of the States. Since the peace, the progress of the population of this State has been rapid: its growth in improvement and population has been checked by the hostile irruptions of the Creek Indians, which have been frequent, and very distressing to the frontier inhabitants. Treaties have been held, and a cessation of hostilities agreed to between the parties; and it is expected that a permanent peace will soon be concluded, and tranquillity restored to the State.—See Hewett's Hist. S. Carolina and Georgia.

SPANISH DOMINIONS.

EAST AND WEST FLORIDA.

Miles.

Length 600 } between { 25° and 31° N. Latitude.
Breadth 130 } { 5° and 17° W. Long. from Philadelphia.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Georgia; east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by the Gulf of Mexico; west, by the Mississippi; lying in the form of an L.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND SPRINGS.] Among the rivers that fall into the Atlantic, St. John's and Indian rivers are the principal. St. John's river rises in or near a large swamp, in the heart of East Florida, and pursues a northern course in a broad, navigable stream, which, in several places, spreads into broad bays or lakes. Lake George, which is only a dilatation of the river, is a beautiful piece of water, generally about 15 miles broad, and from 15 to 20 feet deep. It is ornamented with several charming islands, one of which is a mere orange grove, interspersed with magnolias and palm trees. Near Long Lake, which is two miles long and four wide, which communicates with St. John's river by a small creek, is a vast fountain of warm or rather hot mineral water, issuing from a high bank on the river: it boils up with great force, forming immediately a vast circular basin, capacious enough for several shallops to ride in, and runs with rapidity into the river, three or four hundred yards distance. The water is perfectly clear; and the prodigious number and variety of fish in it, though many feet deep, appear as plainly as though lying on a table before your eyes: the water has a disagreeable taste, and smells like bilge water. This river enters into the Atlantic, north of St. Augustine.

Indian river rises a short distance from the sea coast, and runs from north to south, forming a kind of inland passage for many miles along the coast.

Seguana, Apalachicola, Chatahatchi, Escambia, Mobile, Pascagoula, and Pearl rivers, all rise in Georgia, and run southerly into the Gulf of Mexico.

CLIMATE.] Very little different from that of Georgia.

SOIL AND PRODUCTIONS.] There are, in this country, a great variety of soils. The eastern part of it, near and about St. Augustine, is far the most unfruitful; yet even here two crops of Indian corn a year are produced. The banks of the rivers which water the Floridas, and the parts contiguous, are of a superior quality, and well adapted to the culture of rice and corn, while the more interior country, which is high and pleasant, abounds with wood of almost every kind; particularly white and red oak, live oak, laurel magnolia, pine hickory, cypress, red and white cedar. The live oaks, though not tall, contain a prodigious quantity of timber: the trunk is generally from 12 to 20 feet in circumference, and rises 10 or 12 feet from the earth, and then branches into four or five great limbs, which grow in nearly a horizontal direction, forming a gentle curve. "I have stepped," says Bartram,* "above 50 paces, on a

* Travels, page 85.

straight line, from the trunk of one of these trees to the extremity of the limbs." They are ever green, and the wood almost incorruptible. They bear a great quantity of small acorns, which is agreeable food, when roasted, and from which the Indians extract a sweet oil, which they use in cooking homminy and rice.

The laurel magnolia is the most beautiful among the trees of the forest, and is usually 100 feet high, though some are much higher. The trunk is perfectly erect, rising in the form of a beautiful column, and supporting a head like an obtuse cone. The flowers are on the extremities of the branches; are large, white, and expanded like a rose, and are the largest and most complete of any yet known; when fully expanded, they are from six to nine inches diameter, and have a most delicious fragrance. The cypress is the largest of the American trees. "I have seen trunks of these trees," says Bartram, "that would measure eight, ten, and twelve feet in diameter, for forty and fifty feet straight shaft." The trunks make excellent shingles, boards, and other timber; and when hollowed, make durable and convenient canoes. "When the planters fell these mighty trees, they raise a stage around them, as high as to reach above the buttresses; on this stage eight or ten negroes ascend with their axes, and fall to work round its trunk."

The intervals between the hilly part of this country are extremely rich, and produce spontaneously the fruits and vegetables that are common to Georgia and the Carolinas. But this country is rendered valuable in a peculiar manner by the extensive ranges for cattle.

CHIEF TOWNS.] ST. AUGUSTINE, the capital of East Florida, is situated on the sea coast, latitude $29^{\circ}45'$; is of an oblong figure, and intersected by four streets, which cut each other at right angles. The town is fortified with bastions, and enclosed with a ditch: it is likewise defended by a castle, called Fort St. John, which is well appointed as to ordnance. The north and south breakers, at the entrance of the harbour, form two channels, whose bars have eight feet water.

The principal town in West Florida is PENSACOLA, latitude $30^{\circ}22'$. It lies along the beach, and, like St. Augustine, is of an oblong form. The water approaches to the town, except for small vessels, is obstructed by a low and sandy shore. The bay, however, on which the town stands, forms a very commodious harbour, and vessels may ride here secure from every wind. The exports from this town, consisting of skins, logwood, dying stuff, and silver dollars, amounted, while in the possession of the British, to 63,000*l.* annually; the average value of imports, for three years, from Great Britain, was 97,000*l.*

HISTORY.] The Floridas have experienced the vicissitudes of war, and frequently changed masters, belonging alternately to the French and Spaniards. West Florida, as far east as Perdido river, was owned and occupied by the French; the remainder, and all East Florida by the Spaniards, previous to their being ceded to the English at the peace of 1763. The English divided this country into East and West Florida. They were ceded by Spain to the English at the peace of 1763. During the last war they were reduced by the arms of his Catholic Majesty, and guaranteed to the crown of Spain by the definitive treaty of 1783.

L O U I S I A N A.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the Mississippi east; by the Gulf of Mexico south; by New Mexico west; and runs indefinitely north. Under the French government Louisiana included both sides of the Mississippi, from its mouth to the Illinois, and back from the river, east and west indefinitely.

RIVERS.] It is intersected by a number of fine rivers, among which are St. Francis, which empties into the Mississippi at Kappas Old Fort, navigable about 250 or 300 miles; its course is nearly parallel with the Mississippi, and from twenty to thirty miles distant from it. The Natchitoches, which empties into the Mississippi above Point Coupee, and the Adayes or Mexicano river, emptying into the Gulf of Mexico, and the River Rouge, on which, it is well known, are as rich silver mines as any in Mexico. This is supposed to be one principal reason, why the exclusive navigation of the Mississippi has been so much insisted on by Spain.

CAPITAL.] **NEW ORLEANS.** It stands on the east side of the Mississippi, 105 miles from its mouth, in latitude 30° 2' north. In the beginning of the last year it contained about 1100 houses, seven eighths of which were consumed by fire, in the space of five hours, on the 19th of March, 1788. It is now fast rebuilding. Its advantages for trade are very great. Situated on a noble river, in a fertile and healthy country, within a week's sail of Mexico, by sea, and as near to the British, French, and Spanish West India islands, with a moral certainty of its becoming the general receptacle for the produce of that extensive and valuable country, on the Mississippi and Ohio; these circumstances are sufficient to ensure its future growth and commercial importance.

RELIGION, GOVERNMENT, &c.] The greater part of the white inhabitants are Roman Catholics. They are governed by a Viceroy from Spain, and the number of inhabitants is unknown.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] Louisiana is agreeably situated between the extremes of heat and cold. Its climate varies as it extends towards the north. The southern parts, lying within the reach of the refreshing breezes from the sea, are not scorched like those under the same latitudes in Africa; and its northern regions are colder than those of Europe under the same parallels, with a wholesome serene air. To judge of the produce to be expected from the soil of Louisiana, let us turn our eyes to Egypt, Arabia Felix, Persia, India, China, and Japan, all lying in corresponding latitudes. Of these, China alone has a tolerable government; and yet it must be acknowledged they all are, or have been, famous for their riches and fertility. From the favourableness of the climate, two annual crops of Indian corn may be produced; and the soil, with little cultivation, would furnish grain of every kind in the greatest abundance. Their timber is as fine as any in the world, and the quantities of live oak, ash, mulberry, walnut, cherry, cypress, and cedar, are astonishing. The neighbourhood of the Mississippi, besides, furnishes the richest fruits in great variety; the soil is particularly adapted for hemp, flax, and tobacco; and indigo is at this time a staple commodity, which commonly yields the planter three or four cuttings a year. In a word, whatever is rich and rare in the most desirable climates in Europe, seems to be the spontaneous production of this delightful country. The Mississippi and the neighbouring lakes furnish in great plenty several sorts of fish, particularly perch, pike, sturgeon, and cels.

In the northern part of Louisiana, forty-five miles below the mouth of the Ohio river, on the west bank of the Mississippi, a settlement is commencing, conducted by Colonel Morgan of New Jersey, under the patronage of the Spanish king. The spot on which the city is proposed to be built is called New Madrid, after the capital of Spain, and is in north latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$.

The limits of the new city of Madrid are to extend four miles south, and two miles west from the river, so as to cross a beautiful, living, deep lake, of the purest spring water, one hundred yards wide, and several miles in length, emptying itself, by a constant rapid narrow stream, through the center of the city. The banks of this lake, which is called St. Annis, are high, beautiful, and pleasant; the waters deep, clear, and sweet; the bottom a clear sand, free from woods, shrubs, or other vegetables, and well stored with fish. On each side of this delightful lake streets are laid out, 100 feet wide, and a road to be continued round it, of the same breadth; and the streets are directed to be preserved for ever, for the health and pleasure of the citizens. A street 120 feet wide, on the banks of the Mississippi, is laid out; and the trees are directed to be preserved for the same purpose. Twelve acres, in a central part of the city, are to be reserved in like manner, to be ornamented, regulated, and improved by the magistracy of the city for public walks; and forty half acre lots for other public uses; and one lot of twelve acres for the king's use.

New Madrid, from its local situation and adventitious privileges, is in prospect of being the great emporium of the western country, unless the free navigation of the Mississippi should be opened to the United States. And even should this desired event take place, which probably will not without a rupture with Spain, this must be a place of great trade. For here will naturally center the immense quantities of produce that will be borne down the Illinois, the Mississippi, the Ohio, and their various branches; and if the carriers can find as good a market for their cargoes here, as at New Orleans or the West Indies, and can procure the articles they desire, they will gladly save themselves the difficulties and dangers of navigating the long Mississippi.

The country in the vicinity of this intended city is represented as excellent, in many parts beyond description. The natural growth consists of mulberry, locust, sassafras, walnut, hickory, oak, ash, dog-wood, &c. with one or more grape vines running up almost every tree; the grapes yield, from experiment, good red wine in plenty, and with little labour. In some of the low grounds grow large cypress trees. The country is interspersed with prairies and now and then a cane patch of 100, and some of 1000 acres. These prairies have no trees on them, but are fertile in grass, flowering plants, strawberries, and, when cultivated, produce good crops of wheat, barley, Indian corn, flax, hemp, and tobacco, and are easily tilled. The climate is said to be favourable for health and to the culture of fruits of various kinds, and particularly for garden vegetables. Iron and lead mines and salt springs, it is asserted, are found in such plenty as to afford an abundant supply of these necessary articles. The banks of the Mississippi, for many leagues in extent, commencing about twenty miles above the mouth of Ohio, are a continued chain of lime-stone. A fine tract of high, rich, level land, S.W.W. and N.W. of New Madrid, about twenty-five miles wide, extends quite to the River St. Francis.

It has been supposed by some that all settlers who go beyond the Mississippi, will be for ever lost to the United States. There is, I believe, little danger of this, provided they are not provoked to withdraw their friendship. The emigrants will be made up of the citizens of the United States. They will carry along with them their manners and customs, their habits of government, religion and education; and as they are to be indulged

dulged with religious freedom, and with the privilege of making their own laws, and of conducting education upon their own plans, these American habits will undoubtedly be cherished. If so they will be Americans in fact, though nominally the subjects of Spain.

It is true Spain will draw a revenue from them, but in return they will enjoy peculiar commercial advantages, the benefit of which will be experienced by the United States, and perhaps be an ample compensation for the loss of so many citizens as may migrate thither. In short, this settlement, if conducted with judgement and prudence, may be mutually serviceable both to Spain and the United States; it may prevent jealousies; lessen national prejudices; promote religious toleration; preserve harmony, and be a medium of trade reciprocally advantageous.

Besides, it is well known that empire has been travelling from east to west. Probably her last and broadest seat will be America. Here the sciences and the arts of civilized life are to receive their highest improvements: here civil and religious liberty are to flourish, unchecked by the cruel hand of civil or ecclesiastical tyranny: here genius, aided by all the improvements of former ages, is to be exerted in humanizing mankind, in expanding and enriching their minds with religious and philosophical knowledge, and in planning and executing a form of government, which shall involve all the excellencies of former governments, with as few of their defects as is consistent with the imperfection of human affairs, and which shall be calculated to protect and unite, in a manner consistent with the natural rights of mankind, the largest empire that ever existed. Elevated with these prospects, which are not merely the visions of fancy, we cannot but anticipate the period, as not far distant, when the American Empire will comprehend millions of souls west of the Mississippi. Judging upon probable grounds, the Mississippi was never designed as the western boundary of the American empire. The God of Nature never intended that some of the best part of his earth should be inhabited by the subjects of a monarch 4000 miles from them. And may we not venture to predict, that, when the rights of mankind shall be more fully known, (and the knowledge of them is fast increasing both in Europe and America) the power of European potentates will be confined to Europe, and their present American dominions become, like the United States, free, sovereign, and independent empires.

It seems to depend on a timely adoption of a wise and liberal policy on the part of Spain, whether or not there shall be a speedy revolution in her American colonies. It is asserted by the best informed on the subject, that there are not a hundred Spanish families in all Louisiana and West Florida; the bulk of the inhabitants are French people, who are inimical to the Spaniards, and emigrants from the United States, and a few English, Scots, Dutch, and Irish. This was the case in 1791; and as all emigrations to this country have since been, and will probably in future be from the United States, and these emigrations are numerous, the time will soon come, when the Anglo-Americans in this country will far exceed the number of all other nations.

The wretched and wicked policy of New Orleans, unless changed, will hasten a revolution in the Spanish colonies. So long as the governor can dictate laws and dispense with them at his pleasure, and create monopolies in trade for his own and his favourites' advantage, as is now the case, there can be no stability in the commerce of this place. The exclusive right, even of supplying the market with fresh beef, pork, veal, and mutton, is monopolized. No farmer or planter is allowed to kill his own beef, swine, calf, or sheep, and send it to market; he must sell it to the King's butcher, as he is called, at the price he is pleased to give; and this man retails it out at a certain price agreed upon by the governor, in just such pieces as he thinks proper, through

through a window or grate. Ask for a roasting piece, and he will give you a shin or brisket of beef; point to the piece you want, and he will tell you it is engaged to your superior. From similar conduct, turkies now sell for four or five dollars a piece, which, under the French government, were in abundance for half a dollar. The monopoly of flour is, if possible, on still a worse footing for the inhabitant: and the tobacco inspection yet more discouraging to the planter. The governor, or the crown, as it is called, must have an undefined advantage in every thing. Hence all are ripe for a revolution the moment one shall offer with prospect of being supported, whether it shall come from the United States, England, France, or internally from the inhabitants.

It is said to be the fixed resolution of the British ministry to seize on New Orleans, in the first instance, in case of a rupture with Spain, as a necessary prelude to an attack on the Spanish possessions in the West Indies and on the main: it has been their policy uniformly, and orders have been given accordingly at different times. For this purpose every bend of the river, every bay and harbour on the coast, have been surveyed and founded with the utmost exactness, and all of them are better known to the British than to the Spaniards themselves.

Whilst the United States were engaged in the revolution war against England, the Spaniards attacked and possessed themselves of all the English posts and settlements on the Mississippi, from the Iberville up to the Yazoo river, including the Natchez country; and by virtue of this conquest are now peopling and governing an extent three degrees north of the United States' south boundary, claiming the exclusive navigation of the other. This alone will probably be deemed sufficient cause for the United States to unite with any other power against Spain, the first opportunity, as both of right, they conceive, belong to them by treaty. It is asserted that the Kentucky country alone could, in one week, raise a sufficient force to conquer all the Spanish possessions on the Mississippi; whilst one thousand men would be equal to defend the whole country of New Orleans and Louisiana from any enemy approaching it by sea. The greater a hostile fleet entering the Mississippi, the greater and more certain would be their destruction if opposed by men of knowledge and resolution.*

HISTORY.

* The following extract of a letter from a gentleman at New Orleans, dated September, 1790, contains much useful information, in confirmation of the above.

"When I left you and my other friends in Baltimore, last year, I promised to write to you by every opportunity, and to communicate to you every information which I could derive from my excursion to the Ohio, down that beautiful stream, during my stay at Kentucky and the western posts, my visit to the Illinois and the different settlements on the Mississippi, from thence downward to New Orleans.

"As I have devoted more than twelve months in making this tour, with the determination to judge for myself, and to give you and my other friends information to be depended upon, regarding the climate, soil, natural productions, population, and other advantages and disadvantages, which you may depend on finding in the country I have passed through, I cannot, within the narrow bounds of this letter, comply with my intention, and your wish, but I must beg of you to rest satisfied with what follows:

* * * * *

"Nearly opposite to Louisville is a stockade fort, garrisoned by two companies of the 1st United States regiment. What use this post of, I never could learn—It is a mere hospital in the summer season, and the grave of brave men, who might be usefully employed elsewhere. Fort Harmar is as remarkably healthful; so is the New England settlement at Muskingum; and I think the Miami settlement will be healthful when the people have the comforts of good living about them; at present they are the poorest among the poor emigrants to this country, and not the best managers. Below the falls, on the west side, is a miserable settlement, called Clarksville, frequently flooded, and composed of people who cannot better themselves at present, or I suppose they would not continue here. From hence I made an excursion by land to Post Vincent, distant about 100 miles: the fort here is garrisoned by two companies, at great expense, but little use. Not liking the country on account of the many hostile neighbouring Indians, I hastened out of it, and went with a party

HISTORY.] The Mississippi, on which the fine country of Louisiana is situated, was first discovered by Ferdinand de Soto, in 1541. Monsieur de la Salle was the first who traversed it. He, in the year 1682, having passed down to the mouth of the Mississippi, and surveyed the adjacent country, returned to Canada, from whence he took passage to France.

From the flattering accounts which he gave of the country, and the consequential advantages that would accrue from settling a colony in those parts, Louis XIV. was induced to establish a company for the purpose. Accordingly a squadron of four vessels, amply provided with men and provisions, under the command of Monsieur de la Salle, embarked, with an intention of settling near the mouth of the Mississippi. But he unintentionally failed a hundred leagues to the westward of it, where he attempted to establish a colony; but through the unfavourableness of the climate, most of his men miserably perished, and he himself was villainously murdered, not long after, by two of his own men. Monsieur Iberville succeeded him in his laudable attempts. He, after two successful voyages, died while preparing for a third. Crozat succeeded him; and in 1712, the king gave him Louisiana. This grant continued but a short time after the death of Louis XIV. In 1763, Louisiana was ceded to the King of Spain, to whom it now belongs.

of Frenchmen to Kaskaskias, in the Illinois country, and visited Prairie des Rochers, St. Philip's, Belle Fontaine, and Kahokia; from whence making up a party to pursue some hostile Kukapoos, and steering due east, we fell on the head waters of the Kaskaskia river, which we crossed at some distance. This is a delightful country! On our return to Kahokia, I crossed over to St. Louis, on the Spanish side, but I did not proceed far into the country; what I did see I did not like, and therefore bought a canoe and went down the Mississippi to St. Genevieve and the Saline. Not being pleased with these places, nor the country around, I embraced the company of some French hunters and traders going towards the St. Francis river, in a south-west direction from St. Genevieve. After travelling thirty miles nearly, I came to a sweet country; here meeting with some Shawanese Indians going to l'Ance la Graisse and New Madrid, I made them a small present, and engaged them to escort me there, which they did through a country fine and beautiful beyond description; variegated by small hills, beautiful timber, and extensive plains of luxuriant soil. Here the Spaniards are building a handsome fort, to encourage the settlement by Americans, on a plan of Colonel Morgan's, of New Jersey; which, had it been pursued, as proposed by him, would have made this the first in all the western country; but they have deviated from it, so much as to discourage the settlement, and many have left it. The banks of the Mississippi overflow above and below the town, but the country back from the river is incomparably beautiful and fine. I made a tour back to the river St. Francis, distant about twenty-eight or thirty miles, and returned by another route more southward, to my great satisfaction. Expressing to some of the people, at New Madrid, my surprise at Colonel S***'s account of this country, I was told that he never went 100 yards back from the river, either on the Ohio or Mississippi, except once, and that was at l'Ance la Graisse, where a horse was provided for him, and he rode fifteen or twenty miles, and returned so enraptured with the country, that he would not listen to the proposed settlement of New Madrid being fixed at any other place; and he actually applied to Colonel Morgan for forty surveys, most of which were executed; and he entered into obligations for settlements thereof; but the Colonel refusing to grant him 300 acres of the town lots, for a farm, as it would be injurious to other applicants of equal merit, S*** swore he would do every thing in his power to injure Morgan and the settlement, which it seems he has endeavoured to do, to the ruin, however, of his own reputation. I am satisfied that the failure of this settlement is only owing to a narrow policy in the Spanish government, or to a deviation from their first plan, and not from the causes represented by its enemies. This is the country, of all others, I have seen, which I would wish to settle in, had Col. Morgan's plan been adopted, or carried into execution; and thousands among the best people of the western country would already have been settled here. Why it was not, I know not; but I am told jealousy of his success was the cause.

"After continuing two months in this delightful country, I proceeded to the Natchez, which has already become a considerable settlement, and is now under the government of Don Gayoso, a man greatly beloved; but the Spanish government, though I think it liberal at present, will not long agree with American ideas of liberty and justice; and a revolution is now in embryo, which a small matter will blow to a flame; and New Orleans itself will be at the mercy of new subjects, if joined by a handful of the Kentucky people.

MEXICO, or NEW SPAIN.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	
Length	2100	} between { 9° and 40° N. Latitude 18° and 50° W. Longitude
Breadth	1600	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by unknown regions; east, by Louisianaz, and the Gulf of Mexico; south, by the Isthmus of Darien, which separates it from Terra Firma in South America; west, by the Pacific ocean.

GRAND DIVISIONS.] This vast country is divided as follows:

Grand Divisions.	Audiences.	Provinces.	Chief Towns.
OLD MEXICO.	Galiccia,	7	Guadalaxara
	Mexico,	9	MEXICO, N. lat. 9° 26'
	Guatimala,	6	Guatimala.*
NEW MEXICO	Apacheira		} ST. FE, N. lat. 36° 30'
PROPER.	Sonora		
CALIFORNIA,	on the west, a peninsula.		ST. JUAN.

RIVERS, LAKES, AND FOUNTAINS.] The land is in great part abrupt and mountainous, covered with thick woods, and watered with large rivers. Some of these run into the Gulf of Mexico, and others into the Pacific ocean. Among the first are, Alvarado, Coatzacualco, and Tabasco. The Alvarado has its principal source in the mountains of the Zapotecas, and after making a circuit through the province of Mazatlan, and receiving other smaller rivers and streams, is discharged into the Gulf by three navigable mouths, at thirty miles distance from Vera Cruz. The river Coatzacualco, which is also navigable, empties into the ocean near the country of Onohualco. The river Tabasco begins its course from the mountains, which separate the diocese of Chiapan from that of Guatimala, and afterwards that of Onohualco, where it runs into the sea.

Amongst the rivers which run into the Pacific ocean, the principal is the river Guadalaxara, or Great River. It takes its rise in the mountains of the valley of Tolocean, waters the country of Tonollan, where at present stands the city of Guadalaxara, the capital of New Galicia; and after running a course of more than 600 miles, discharges itself into the ocean, in the latitude of 22 degrees.

There are several lakes, which do not less embellish the country than give convenience to the commerce of the people. The lakes of Nicaragua, Chapallan, and Pazquaro, are among the largest. The lakes Tetzeuco and Chalco occupy a great part of the Vale of Mexico, which is the finest tract of country in New Spain. The waters of Chalco are sweet, those of Tetzeuco are brackish. A canal unites them. The lower lake, Tetzeuco, was formerly as much as 20 miles long and 17 broad, and lying at the bottom of the vale, is the reservoir of all the waters from the surrounding

* This city was swallowed up by an earthquake, June 7th, 1773, when 8000 families instantly perished. New Guatimala is well inhabited.

mountains. The city of Mexico stands on an island in this lake. These two lakes, whose circumference was not less than 90 miles, represented the figure of a camel. At present the extent of these lakes is much less, for the Spaniards have diverted into new channels many rivers which formerly ran into them. All the water which is collected there is at first sweet, and becomes salt afterwards, from the nitrous bed of the lake where it is received. M. De Bomare says, that the salt of the Mexican lake may proceed from the waters of the ocean in the north being filtered through the earth. But this is truly a gross error, because that lake is 180 miles distant from the ocean; besides, the bed of this lake is so elevated, that it has at least one mile of perpendicular height above the level of the sea. The lake of Tocktlan makes a fine prospect, and its banks a most delightful dwelling.

In this country are interspersed many fountains, of different qualities. There are an infinity of nitrous, sulphureous, vitriolic, and aluminous mineral waters, some of which spring out so hot, that in a short time any kind of fruit or animal food is boiled in them. There are also petrifying waters, namely, those of Tehuacan, a city about 120 miles south-east from Mexico; those of the spring of Pucuro, in the States of the Conte di Miravalles, in the kingdom of Michuacan, and that of a river in the province of the Queleni. With the waters of Pucuro they make little white smooth stones, not displeasing to the taste; scrapings from which taken in broth, or in gruel made of Indian corn, are most powerful diaphoretics, and are used with remarkable success in various kinds of fevers. The citizens of Mexico, during the time of their kings, supplied themselves with water from the great spring of Chapoltepec, which was conveyed to the city by an aqueduct.

We might here describe the stupendous falls or cascades of several rivers, particularly that in the river Guadalajara, 15 miles south of that city; and the famous *PONTI DI Dio*, which is a natural bridge thrown over the deep river Atoyaque, 100 miles south-east of Mexico, over which coaches and carriages conveniently pass.

CLIMATE.] The climate of this extensive country is various. The maritime parts are hot, and for the most part moist and unhealthy. Their heat, which occasions sweat even in January, is owing to the perfect flatness of the coasts compared with the inland country; or from the mountains of sand that gather upon the shore. Lands which are very high, or very near to high mountains, which are perpetually covered with snow, are cold; there has been white frosts and ice, in the dog-days. All the other inland parts which are the most populous, enjoy a climate mild and benign, that they neither feel the rigour of winter, nor the heats of summer. No other fire than the sun's rays is necessary to give warmth in winter; no other relief is wanted in the seasons of heat than the shade; the same clothing which covers a man in the dog-days, defends him in January; and the animals sleep all the year under the open sky.

The mildness and agreeableness of the climate under the torrid zone is the effect of several natural causes, entirely unknown to the ancients, who believed it uninhabitable; and not well understood by some moderns, by whom it is esteemed unfavourable to those who live in it. The purity of the atmosphere, the smaller obliquity of the solar rays, and the longer stay of this luminary upon the horizon in winter, in comparison with other regions farther removed from the equator, concur to lessen the cold, and to prevent all that horror which disfigures the face of nature in other climes. During that season, a serene sky, and the natural delights of the country are enjoyed; whereas under the frigid, and even for the most part under the temperate zones, the clouds rob man of the prospect of heaven, and the snow buries the beautiful produc-

tions of the earth. No less causes combine to temper the heat of summer. The plentiful showers which frequently water the earth after mid-day, from April or May, to September or October; the high mountains continually loaded with snow, scattered here and there through the country; the cool winds which breathe from them in that season; and the shorter stay of the sun upon the horizon, compared with the circumstances of the temperate zone, transform the summer of those happy countries into a cool and cheerful spring.

But the agreeableness of the climate is counterbalanced by thunder storms, which are frequent in summer, and by earthquakes, which at all seasons are felt, although with less danger than terror.

MOUNTAINS.] The fire kindled in the bowels of the earth by the sulphureous and bituminous materials, has made vents for itself in some of the mountains, or volcanos, from whence flames are often seen to issue, and ashes and smoke. There are five mountains in the district of the Mexican empire, where, at different times, this dreadful phenomenon has been observed.

Pojauhtecal, called by the Spaniards, Volcan de Orizaba, began to send forth smoke in the year 1545, and continued to do so for twenty years; but after that, for the space of more than two centuries, there has not been observed the smallest sign of burning. This celebrated mountain, which is of a conical figure, is indisputably the highest land in all Mexico; and, on account of its height, is the first land descried by seamen who are steering that way, at the distance of fifty leagues. It is higher than the peak of Teneriffe. Its top is always covered with snow, and its border adorned with large cedars, pine, and other trees, of valuable wood, which make the prospect of it every way beautiful. It is distant from the capital upwards of ninety miles to the eastward.

The Popocatepu and Tztaceihuatl, which lie near each other, thirty-three miles south-east from Mexico, are also of a surprising height. Popocatepu, for which they have substituted the name Volcan, has a mouth or vent more than half a mile wide, from which, in the time of the Mexican kings, it frequently emitted flames; and in the last century many times threw out great quantities of ashes upon the places adjacent; but in this century hardly any smoke has been observed. Tztaceihuatl, or Seirra Nevada, threw out also at some times smoke and ashes. Both mountains have tops always covered with snow, in such quantities, as to supply, with what precipitates on the neighbouring rocks, the cities of Mexico, Gilopoli, Cholula, and the adjoining places, to the distance of forty miles from these mountains, where an incredible quantity is yearly consumed in cooling and congealing liquors.

The mountain Juruyo, situated in the valley of Urecho, is a great curiosity. Before the year 1760, there was nothing of it but a small hill, where there was a sugar plantation. But on the 29th of September, 1760, it burst with furious shocks, and entirely ruined the sugar works, and the neighbouring village of Guacana; and from that time has continued to emit fire and burning rocks, which have formed themselves into three high mountains, whose circumference was nearly six miles in 1766, according to the account communicated by the governor of that province, who was an eye-witness of the fact. The ashes, at the irruption, were forced to the almost incredible distance of 150 miles. In the city of Valladolid, 60 miles distant, it rained ashes in such abundance that they were obliged to sweep the yards of the houses two or three times during the day.

Besides these there are others also, which, though not burning mountains, are yet of great celebrity for their height.

STONES AND MINERALS.] The mountains of Mexico abound in ores of every kind of metal, and a great variety of fossils. The Mexicans found gold in various parts of their country: they gathered this precious metal chiefly in grains among the sand of the river. Silver was dug out of the mines of Ilachico, and others; but it was not so much prized by them as it is by other nations. Since the conquest, so many silver mines have been discovered in that country, especially in the provinces which are to the north-west of the capital, it is quite impossible to enumerate them. Of copper, they had two sorts; one hard, which they used instead of iron to make axes, hatchets, mattocks, and other instruments of war and agriculture; the other flexible, for making of basons, pots, and other vessels. Of tin, they made money, and lead was sold at market. There are also mines of iron, quicksilver, and in many places mines of sulphur, alum, vitriol, cinnabar, ochre, and a white earth strongly resembling white lead. Of amber and asphaltum, or bitumen of Judea, there was and still is great abundance on both coasts; amber was used to set in gold for ornaments; asphaltum was employed in certain incense offerings.

With respect to precious stones there were, and still are, diamonds, though few in number; amethysts, cats eyes, turquoises, cornelians, and some green stones resembling emeralds, and not much inferior to them. There are quarries of jasper, and marble of different colours, in the mountains of Calpolalpan. The stone Tetizontli is generally of a dark red colour, pretty hard, porous, and light, unites most firmly with lime and sand, and is therefore more in demand than any other, for the buildings of the capital, where the foundation is marshy. There are besides, entire mountains of loadstone, and among others one very considerable between Tcoiltylan and Chilapan, in the country of the Coahuixcas.

PRODUCTIONS.] However plentiful and rich the mineral kingdom of Mexico may be, the vegetable kingdom is still more various and abundant. The celebrated Dr. Hernandez, the Pliny of New Spain, describes, in his Natural History, about twelve hundred plants, natives of that country; but as his description is confined to medicinal plants, he has hardly comprised one half of what provident nature has produced there for the benefit of mankind. With regard to the other vegetables, some are esteemed for their flowers, some for their fruit, some for their leaves, some for their roots, some for their trunk or their wood, and others for their gum, resin, oil, or juice. Many flowers which embellish the meads, and adorn the gardens of the Mexicans, are worthy to be mentioned (would our limits permit) either on account of the singular beauty of their colours, their exquisite fragrance, or the extraordinariness of their form.

The fruits which are original in Mexico, are the pine-apple, plums, dates, and a great variety of others. There are also many others that are not original in the country, viz. water-melons, apples, peaches, quinces, apricots, pears, pomegranates, figs, black cherries, walnuts, almonds, olives, chesnuts, and grapes.

The cocoa-nut, vainilla, chia, great pepper, tomati, the pepper of Tabasco, and cotton, are very common with the Mexicans. Wheat, barley, peas, beans, and rice, have been successfully cultivated in this country.

With respect to plants which yield profitable resins, gums, oils, or juices, the country of Mexico is singularly fertile. Of the elastic gum, the Mexicans make their foot-balls, which, though heavy, rebound more than those filled with air.

ANIMALS.] The animal kingdom of Mexico is not very well known. Of the quadrupeds, some are ancient and some are modern; those are called modern which were transported from the Canaries and Europe into that country in the sixteenth century: such

such are horses, asses, bulls, sheep, goats, hogs, dogs, and cats, which have all multiplied. Of the ancient quadrupeds, by which is meant those that from time immemorial have been in that country, some were common to both the continents of Europe and America, some peculiar to the new world, others natives only of the kingdom of Mexico. The ancient quadrupeds common to Mexico and the old continents are, lions, tigers, wild cats, bears, wolves, foxes, the common stags and white stags, bucks, wild goats, badgers, pole cats, weasles, martins, squirrels, rabbits, hares, otters, and rats. There are many other kinds of animals in this country, too numerous to mention.

BIRDS OF MEXICO.] Their prodigious number, their variety, and many valuable qualities, have occasioned some authors to observe, that as Africa is the country of beasts, so Mexico is the country of birds. It is said there are 200 species peculiar to that kingdom. There are a prodigious number of geese; at least, twenty species of ducks; several kinds of herons, with vast numbers of swans, water rails, divers, king fishers, pelicans, and others. The multitude of ducks is sometimes so great, as quite to cover the fields, and to appear at a distance like flocks of sheep. The pelican is remarkable in assisting the sick or wounded of its own species, a circumstance which the Americans sometimes take advantage of, to procure fish without trouble. They take a live pelican, break its wing, and after tying it to a tree, conceal themselves in the neighbourhood; there they watch the coming of the other pelicans with their provisions, and as soon as they see these throw up the fish from their pouch, run and seize them, and after leaving a little for the captive bird, they carry off the rest.

In the other classes of birds, some are valuable on account of their flesh, some for their plumage, and some for their song; while others engage our attention by their extraordinary instinct, or some other remarkable quality: of birds which afford a wholesome and agreeable food, there are more than seventy species. There are thirty-five species of Mexican birds that are superlatively beautiful. The talking birds, or those which imitate the human voice, are to be found in equal abundance in this country; of these the parrot holds the first place.

FISH.] The fish common to both oceans are, whales, dolphins, sword fish, saw fish, tiburones, manitis, mantas, porpoises, bonatas, cod, mullets, thornbacks, barbels, flying fish, shad, lobsters, soles, and many others, together with several species of tortoises, polypus, crabs, sponges, &c. The Mexican gulf, besides those already mentioned, affords sturgeons, pike, congers, cuttle fish, anchovies, carp, eels, nautilus, turbot, &c. In the Pacific ocean, besides those common to the two seas, there are salmon, tunnies, sea scorpions, herrings, and others. In the lakes and rivers are three or four kinds of white fish, carp, mullet, trout, barbels, eels, and many others.

Shells have been found in prodigious numbers, and of great variety, and some of them of extraordinary beauty, especially those of the Pacific ocean. Pearls also have been fished, at different times, along all the coasts of that ocean.

GOVERNMENT AND RELIGION.] The civil government of Mexico is administered by tribunals, called audiences. In these courts the viceroy of the King of Spain presides. His employment is the greatest trust and power his Catholic Majesty has at his disposal, and is perhaps the richest government entrusted to any subject in the world. The viceroy continues in office three years.

The clergy are extremely numerous in Mexico. The priests, monks, and nuns, of all orders, make a fifth part of the white inhabitants, both here and in other parts of Spanish America.

CHIEF TOWNS, AND COMMERCE.] MEXICO is the oldest city in America of which we have any account. The Abbe Clavigero, who is our authority for the preceding account of this country, dates its foundation as far back as 1325. It is situated in the charming vale of Mexico, on several small islands, in lake Tetzcuco, in North latitude $19^{\circ} 26'$ and $276^{\circ} 34'$ West longitude from Ferro. This vale is surrounded with lofty and verdant mountains, and formerly contained no less than forty eminent cities, besides villages and hamlets. The city is subject to frequent inundations, as is easily accounted for from its local situation, the lake in which it stands being the reservoir of the waters flowing from the neighbouring mountains.

Concerning the ancient population of this city there are various opinions. The historians most to be relied on say that it was nearly nine miles in circumference, and contained upwards of 60,000 houses, containing each from four to ten inhabitants. Some historians reckon 120,000 and some 130,000 houses. By a late accurate enumeration, made by the magistrates and priests, it appears that the present number of inhabitants exceeds 200,000. We may form some idea of its populousness from the quantity of pulque* and tobacco which are daily consumed in it, ascertained from the custom house books, February 23, 1775. Every day upwards of 190,000 pounds of pulque are carried into the city, which is almost solely consumed by the Indians and Mulattoes, who drink this beverage. The tax upon it amounts annually to about 280,000 crowns. The daily consumption of tobacco is reckoned at 1250 crowns.

The greatest curiosity in the city of Mexico is their floating gardens. When the Mexicans, about the year 1325, were subdued by the Colhuan and Tepanecan nations, and confined to the small islands in the lake, having no land to cultivate, they were taught by necessity to form moveable gardens, which floated on the lake. Their construction is very simple. They take willows and the roots of marsh plants, and other materials which are light, and twist them together, and so firmly unite them as to form a sort of platform, which is capable of supporting the earth of the garden. Upon this foundation they lay the light bushes which float on the lake, and over spread the mud and dirt which they draw up from the bottom of the lake. Their regular figure is quadrangular; their length and breadth various, but generally about eight rods long and three wide; and their elevation from the surface of the water is less than a foot. These were the first fields that the Mexicans owned after the foundation of Mexico; there they first cultivated the maize, great pepper, and other plants necessary for their support. From the industry of the people these fields soon became numerous. At present they cultivate flowers and every sort of garden herbs upon them. Every day of the year, at sunrise, innumerable vessels or boats, loaded with various kinds of flowers and herbs which are cultivated in these gardens, are seen arriving by the canal at the great market place of Mexico. All plants thrive in them surprisingly; the mud of the lake makes a very rich soil, which requires no water from the clouds. In the largest gardens there is commonly a little tree, and a little hut to shelter the cultivator, and defend him from the rain or the sun. When the owner of a garden, or the *Chinampa*, as he is called, wishes to change his situation, to get out of a bad neighbourhood, or to come nearer to his family, he gets into his little boat, and, by his own strength alone, if the garden is small, or with the assistance of others, if it is large, conducts it wherever he pleases, with the little tree and hut upon it. That part of the island where these floating gardens are, is a place of delightful recreation, where the senses receive the highest possible gratification.

* *Pulque* is the usual wine or beer of the Mexicans, made of the fermented juice of the Maguei. This liquor will not keep but one day, and therefore what is made is daily consumed.

The buildings, which are of stone, are convenient, and the public edifices, especially the churches, are magnificent, and the city has the appearance of immense wealth.

The trade of Mexico consists of three great branches, which extend over the whole world. It carries on a traffic with Europe, by La Vera Cruz, situated on the Gulf of Mexico, on North Sea; with the East Indies, by Acapulco on the South Sea, two hundred and ten miles south-west of Mexico; and with South America, by the same port. These two sea ports, Vera Cruz and Acapulco, are admirably well situated for the commercial purposes to which they were applied. It is by means of the former that Mexico pours her wealth over the whole world; and receives in return the numberless luxuries and necessities which Europe affords her. To this port the fleet from Cadiz, called the Flota, consisting of three men of war, as a convoy, and fourteen large merchant ships, annually arrives about the beginning of November. Its cargo consists of almost every commodity and manufacture of Europe; and there are few nations but have more concern in it than the Spaniards, who send out little else except wine and oil. The profit of these, with the freight and commission to the merchants, and duty to the king, is all the advantage which Spain derives from the American commerce. When all the goods are landed and disposed of at La Vera Cruz, the fleet takes in the plate, precious stones, and other commodities for Europe. Some time in May they are ready to depart. From La Vera Cruz they sail to the Havannah, in the Isle of Cuba, which is the rendezvous where they meet the galleons, another fleet which carries on the trade of Terra Firma by Carthagena, and of Peru by Panama and Porto Bello. When all are collected and provided with a convoy necessary for their safety, they steer for Old Spain.

Acapulco is the sea port by which the communication is kept up between the different parts of the Spanish empire in America, and the East Indies. About the month of December, the great galleon, attended by a large ship as a convoy, which make the only communication between the Philippines and Mexico, annually arrive here. The cargoes of these ships, (for the convoy, though in a clandestine manner, likewise carries goods) consist of all the rich commodities and manufactures of the east. At the same time the annual ship from Lima, the capital of Peru, comes in, and is computed to bring not less than two millions of pieces of eight in silver, besides quicksilver, and other valuable commodities, to be laid out in the purchase of the galleons cargoes. Several other ships, from different parts of Chili and Peru, meet upon the same occasion. A great fair, in which the commodities of all parts of the world are bartered for one another, lasts thirty days. The galleon then prepares for her voyage, loaded with silver and such European goods as have been thought necessary. The Spaniards, though this trade be carried on entirely through their hands, and in the very heart of their dominions, are comparatively but small gainers by it. For as they allow the Dutch, Great Britain, and other commercial States, to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the flota, so the Spanish inhabitants of the Philippines, tainted with the indolence which ruined their European ancestors, permit the Chinese merchants to furnish the greater part of the cargo of the galleon. Notwithstanding what has been said of Vera Cruz and Acapulco, the city of Mexico, the capital of the empire, ought to be considered as the center of commerce in this part of the world; for here the principal merchants reside, and the greatest part of the business is negotiated. The East India goods from Acapulco, and the European from Vera Cruz, also pass through this city. Hither all the gold and silver come to be coined, here the king's fifth is deposited,

and here are wrought all those utensils and ornaments in plate which are every year sent into Europe.

HISTORY.] The empire of Mexico was subdued by Cortes, in the year 1521. Montezuma was at that time emperor of Mexico. In the course of the war, he was treacherously taken by Cortes, and held as a prisoner. During the imprisonment of Montezuma, Cortes and his army had made repeated attacks on his subjects, but without success. Cortes was now determined, as his last resource, to try what effect the interposition of Montezuma might have to soothe or overawe his subjects. This unfortunate prince, at the mercy of the treacherous Spaniards, and reduced to the sad necessity of becoming the instrument of his own disgrace, and of the slavery of his subjects, advanced to the battlements in his royal robes, in all the pomp in which he used to appear on solemn occasions. At sight of their sovereign, whom they had long been accustomed to honour, and almost to revere as a god, the weapons dropped from their hands, every tongue was silent, all bowed their heads, and many prostrated themselves on the ground. Montezuma addressed them with every argument that could mitigate their rage, or persuade them from hostilities. When he ended his discourse, a sullen murmur of disapprobation ran through the crowd; to this succeeded reproaches and threats; and their fury rising in a moment, they violently poured in whole flights of arrows and volleys of stones upon their unhappy monarch; two of the arrows struck him in his body, which, with the blow of a stone on his temple, put an end to his life. Guatimozin succeeded Montezuma, and maintained a vigorous opposition against the assaults of Cortes; but he, like his predecessor, after a noble defence, was forced to submit. Previous to this, being aware of his impending fate, he had ordered that all his treasures should be thrown into the lake. While a prisoner, on suspicion of his having concealed his treasure, he was put to the torture, which was done by laying him on burning coals; but he bore whatever the refined cruelty of his tormentors could inflict with the invincible fortitude of an American warrior. One of his chief favourites, his fellow sufferer, being overcome by the violence of the anguish, turned a dejected eye towards his master, which seemed to implore his permission to reveal all that he knew. But the high-spirited prince darted on him a look of authority, mingled with scorn, and checked his weakness by asking, "Am I reposin go a bed flowers?" Overawed by the reproach, he persevered in dutiful silence, and expired. Cortes, ashamed of a scene so horrid, rescued the royal victim from the hands of his torturers, and prolonged a life for new indignities and sufferings. Cortes died in Spain, in the year 1547, in the sixty-second year of his age. Envied by his contemporaries, and ill requited by the court which he served, he has been admired and celebrated by succeeding ages. By his own desire he was carried to Mexico, and buried there.

Cortes, the great conqueror of Mexico, discovered the extensive peninsula of California in the year 1536, after enduring incredible hardships, and encountering dangers of almost every species. During a long period it continued to be so little frequented, that even its form was unknown, and in most maps it was represented as an island. Sir Francis Drake was the first who took possession of it in 1578, and his right was confirmed by the principal king or chief in the whole country.

SOUTH AMERICA.

WE now enter upon the description of that part of the globe, where the human mind will be successively surprised with the sublime and astonishing works of nature; where rivers of amazing breadth flow through beautiful and widely-extended plains, and where lofty mountains, whose summits are covered with eternal snow, intercept the course of the clouds, and hide their heads from the view of mortals. In some parts of this extensive region, nature hath bountifully bestowed her treasures, and given every thing necessary for the convenience and happiness of man. We have only to regret that a set of avaricious men have successively drenched with innocent blood these plains, which are so beautifully formed and enriched by the hand of nature; and that the rod of Spanish despotism has prevented the population of a country which might have supported millions of beings in affluence.

DIVISIONS.] South America, like Africa, is an extensive peninsula, connected with North America by the isthmus of Darien, and divided between Spain, Portugal, France, Holland, and the Aborigines, as follows:

		Chief Towns.
	{ Terra Firma,	Panama and Carthagena,
SPANISH DOMINIONS.	{ Peru,	Lima,
	{ Chili,	St. Jago,
	{ Paragua,	Buenos Ayres.
PORTUGUESE.]	{ Brazil,	St. Salvador.
FRENCH.]	{ Cayenne,	Caen.
DUTCH.]	{ Surinam,	Paramaribo.
	{ Amazonia,	
ABORIGINES.]	{ Patagonia.	

Of these countries we shall treat in their order.*

* For the best history of South America and Mexico, the reader is referred to Robertson's History of America, and the Abbe Clavigero's History of Mexico.

SPANISH AMERICA.

TERRA FIRMA, OR CASTILE DEL ORO.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	
Length	1400 }	between { 60° and 82° West Longitude. The Equator, and 12° North Latitude.
Breadth	700 }	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by the Atlantic ocean, here called the North Sea; east, by the same ocean and Surinam; south, by Amazonia and Peru; west, by the Pacific ocean.

IT IS DIVIDED INTO

Terra Firma Proper, or Darien,

Carthagena,

St. Martha,

Venezuela,

Comana,

Paria,

New Granada,

Popayan.

Chief Towns.
 { Porto Bello,
 { Panama.
 Carthagena.

Popayan.

BAYS.] In the South Sea the principal bays are those of Panama and St. Michael; in the North Sea are the bays of Porto Bello, Sino, Guiana, &c.

RIVERS.] The principal rivers are the Darien, Chagre, Santa Maria, Conception, and Oronoko. The peculiarities of this last-mentioned river require a particular description.

It was Columbus, who, in 1498, first discovered the Oronoko, the borders of which have since been named Spanish Guiana. This great river takes its rise among the Cordelera mountains, and is said to discharge itself into the ocean by forty openings, after it hath been increased, throughout an immense tract, by the afflux of a prodigious number of rivers more or less considerable. Such is its impetuosity that it stems the strongest tides, and preserves the freshness of its waters to the distance of twelve leagues from the mouth of that vast and deep channel within which it was confined. Its rapidity, however, is not always the same, which is owing to a circumstance perhaps entirely peculiar. The Oronoko, which begins to swell in April, continues rising for five months, and during the sixth remains at its greatest height. From October, it begins gradually to subside, till the month of March, throughout the whole of which it remains in the fixed state of its greatest diminution. These alternate changes are regular, and even invariable. Perhaps the rising of the waters of the Oronoko may depend entirely on the rainy season.

The river is not so easily navigated as might be presumed from its magnitude; its bed being in many places filled up with rocks, which oblige the navigator, at times, to carry both his boats and the merchandize they are laden with, by land round the obstruction.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The climate here, especially in the northern parts, is extremely hot and sultry during the whole year. From the month of May to the end of November, the season called winter by the inhabitants, is almost a continual succession of thunder, rain, and tempests; the clouds precipitating the rains with such impetuosity, that the low lands exhibit the appearance of an ocean. Great part of the country is of consequence almost continually flooded; and this, together with the excessive heat, so impregnates the air with vapours, that in many provinces, particularly about Popayan and Porto Bello, it is extremely unwholesome. The soil of this country is very different, the inland parts being extremely rich and fertile, and the coasts sandy and barren. It is impossible to view without admiration the perpetual verdure of the woods, the luxuriance of the plains, and the towering height of the mountains. This country produces corn, sugar, tobacco, and fruits of all kinds; the most remarkable is that of the manzanillo tree; it bears a fruit resembling an apple,

but which, under this specious appearance, contains the most subtle poison. The bean of Carthagena is the fruit of a species of willow, about the bigness of a bean, and is an excellent remedy for the bite of the most venomous serpents, which are very frequent all over this country. Among the natural merchandize of Terra Firma, the pearls found on the coast, particularly in the bay of Panama, are not the least considerable. An immense number of negro slaves are employed in fishing for these, and have arrived at a wonderful dexterity in this occupation. They are sometimes, however, devoured by sharks, while they dive to the bottom, or are crushed against the shelves of the rocks.

CHIEF TOWNS.] CARTHAGENA is the principal sea port town in Terra Firma. It is situated on the Atlantic ocean, in North latitude $10^{\circ} 26'$, and about three degrees west of the meridian of Philadelphia. The bay on which it stands is seven miles wide from north to south; abounds with variety of good fish; and has a sufficient depth of water, with good anchorage, and so smooth that ships are no more agitated than on a river. The many shallows at its entrance, however, make the help of a good pilot necessary. The town and its suburbs are fortified in modern style; the streets are straight, broad, and well-paved. The houses are principally brick, and one story high. All houses have balconies and lattices of wood. This city is the residence of the governor of the province of Carthagena, and of a bishop, whose spiritual jurisdiction extends over the whole province. There is here also a court of inquisition; several convents and nunneries; a church, a chapel of ease, and a college of Jesuits. The city is well peopled with Indians, Europeans, Negroes, and Creoles. The Europeans, who are not numerous, and the Creoles, manage the whole trade of the place; the other inhabitants are poor, and work hard for subsistence. The inhabitants are universally fond of chocolate and tobacco; and the most sober seldom fail of drinking a glass of brandy in the morning.

PANAMA is the capital of Terra Firma Proper, and is situated upon a capacious bay to which it gives its name. It is the great receptacle of the vast quantities of gold and silver, with other rich merchandize, from all parts of Peru and Chili; here they are lodged in store houses, till the proper season arrives to transport them to Europe.

PORTO BELLO is situated close to the sea, on the declivity of a mountain which surrounds the whole harbour. The convenience and safety of this harbour is such, that Columbus, who first discovered it, gave it the name of Porto Bello, or the Fine Harbour.

HISTORY.] This part of South America was discovered by Columbus, in his third voyage to this continent. It was subdued and settled by the Spaniards about the year 1514, after destroying, with great inhumanity, several millions of the natives. This country was called Terra Firma, on account of its being the first part of the continent which was discovered, all the lands discovered previous to this being islands.

P E R U.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 1800 } between { the Equator and 25° South Latitude.
 Breadth 500 } { 60° and 81° West Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED north, by Terra Firma; west, by the Pacific ocean; south, by Chili; and east, by the mountains called the Andes.

DIVISIONS.] Peru is divided into the following provinces :

Provinces.	Chief Towns.
Quito,	Quito, Payta,
Lima,	Lima, latitude 12° 11' South.
Los Charcos,	Potosi, Porco.

RIVERS.] There is a number of rivers which rise in the Andes, but most of them run to the eastward. Among these are the Grande, Oronoko, Amazon and Plate. The Amazon rises in Peru, but directs its course eastward, and after running between three and four thousand miles, falls into the Atlantic ocean, under the equator. This river, like others between the tropics, annually overflows its banks, at which time it is one hundred and fifty miles wide at its mouth. It is supposed to be the largest river in the world, either with regard to the length of its course, the depth of its waters, or its astonishing breadth. There is one river in Peru, the waters of which are said to be as red as blood; but this is doubted by some: it is probable, however, that there may be qualities in the earth through which this river runs, which may tinge the waters and give them some resemblance to blood.

CLIMATE, AIR, AND SOIL.] From the situation of this country, which is within the torrid zone, it is natural to suppose that it would be almost uninhabitable; but the Andes mountains being on the one side, and the South sea on the other, it is not so prodigiously hot as tropical countries in general are; and in some parts it is disagreeably cold. In one part are mountains of a stupendous height and magnitude, having their summits covered with snow; on the other, volcanoes flaming within, while their summits, chasms, and apertures are involved in ice. The plains are temperate, the beaches and vallies hot; and lastly, according to the disposition of the country, its high or low situation, we find all the variety of gradations of temperature between the two extremes of heat and cold. It is remarkable, that in some places it never rains, which defect is supplied by a dew that falls every night, and sufficiently refreshes the vegetable creation; but in Quito they have prodigious rains, attended by dreadful storms of thunder and lightning. In the inland parts of Peru, and by the banks of the rivers, the soil is usually very fertile; but along the sea coast it is a barren sand.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] Vast numbers of cattle were imported by the Spaniards into Peru, when they took possession of that country; these are now so amazingly increased, that they run wild and are hunted like game. The most remarkable animals in this country are the Peruvian sheep, called the lamas and vicunnas. The lama, in several particulars, resembles the camel, as in the shape of the neck, head, and some other parts; but has no bunch, is much smaller, and is cloven-footed. Its upper lip is cleft like that of a hare, through which, when enraged, it

it spits a venomous juice, that inflames the part on which it falls. The wool with which it is covered is of different colours, but generally brown. These animals are generally docile, so that the Indians use them as beasts of burden. Formerly they used to eat their flesh, and still continue to make that use of such as are past labour, esteeming it preferable to mutton. The vicuña resembles the lama in shape, but is much smaller, and its wool shorter and finer. The most remarkable birds found in Peru are the condors and hummers. The condor is prodigiously large and carnivorous, and very voracious, frequently seizing the lambs as they are feeding upon the heath. The hummer is a night bird, peculiar to the mountainous deserts of Peru. They are seldom seen, though frequently heard, both by their singing, and a strange humming made in the air by the rapidity of their flight, which when near makes a noise like that of a rocket. The insects found in Peru are musketoes in prodigious numbers, miguas, and several others equally venomous; also a variety of beautiful butterflies. This country produces fruits peculiar to the climate, and most of those in Europe. The culture of maize, of pimento and of cotton, which was found established there, has not been neglected: and that of wheat, barley, cassava, potatoes, sugar, and of the olive and vine is attended to. The goat has thriven very well; but the sheep have degenerated, and their wool is become extremely coarse.

MINES.] In the northern parts of Peru are several gold mines; but these of silver are found all over the country, particularly in the neighbourhood of Potosi. Nature never offered to the avidity of mankind, in any country on the globe, such rich mines as those of Potosi. These famous mines were accidentally discovered in the year 1545, in this manner; an Indian, named Hualpa, one day following some deer, they made directly up the hill of Potosi; he came to a steep craggy part of the hill, and the better to enable him to climb up, laid hold of a shrub, which came up by the roots, and laid open, a mass of silver ore—He for some time kept it a secret, but afterwards revealed it to his friend Guanica, who, because he would not discover to him the method of refining it, acquainted the Spaniard his master, named Valaroel, with the discovery. Valaroel registered the mine in 1545; and from that time till 1638 these mines of Potosi had yielded 395,619,000 pieces of eight, which is about 4,255,000 pieces a year. Potosi is about twenty or twenty-five leagues from the city of La Plata. The hill, and also the country for a considerable distance round, is quite barren and desert, and produces neither tree, plant, nor herb, so that the inhabitants of Potosi, which is situated at the foot of the hill, on the south side, are obliged to procure all the necessaries of life from Peru. These mines begin to decrease, and others rise in reputation.

MANUFACTURES, TRADE, AND CITIES.] We join these articles here because of their intimate connection; for, except in the cities we shall describe, there is no commerce worth mentioning. The city of Lima is the capital of Peru, and of the whole Spanish empire: its situation, in the middle of a spacious and delightful valley, was fixed upon by the famous Pizarro, as the most proper for a city, which he expected would preserve his memory. It is so well watered by the Rimac, that the inhabitants, like those of London, command a stream, each for his own use. There are many very magnificent structures, particularly churches, in this city; though the houses in general are built of slight materials, the equality of the climate, and want of rain, rendering stone houses unnecessary: and besides it is found, that these are more apt to suffer by shocks of the earth, which are frequent and dreadful all over this province. Lima is about two leagues from the sea, extends in length two miles, and in breadth
one

one and a quarter. One remarkable fact is sufficient to demonstrate the wealth of this city. When the viceroy, the duke de la Palada, made his entry into Lima in 1682, the inhabitants, to do him honour, caused the streets to be paved with ingots of silver, amounting to seventeen millions sterling. All travellers speak with amazement of the decorations of the churches with gold, silver, and precious stones, which load and ornament even the walls. The only thing that could justify these accounts, is the immense richness and extensive commerce of the inhabitants. The merchants of Lima may be said to deal with all the quarters of the world, and that both on their own accounts, and as factors for others. Here all the products of the southern provinces are conveyed, in order to be exchanged at the harbour of Lima for such articles as the inhabitants of Peru stand in need of; the fleet from Europe and the East Indies land at the same harbour, and the commodities of Asia, Europe, and America, are there bartered for each other. What there is no immediate vent for, the merchants of Lima purchase on their own accounts, and lay up in warehouses, knowing that they must soon find an outlet for them, since by one channel or other they have a communication with almost every commercial nation. But all the wealth of the inhabitants, all the beauty of the situation, and the fertility of the climate of Lima are not sufficient to compensate for one disaster, which always threatens and has sometimes actually befallen them. In the year 1747, a most tremendous earthquake laid three fourths of this city level with the ground, and entirely demolished Callao, the port town belonging to it. Never was any destruction more perfect, not more than one of three thousand inhabitants being left to record this dreadful calamity, and he, by a providence the most singular and extraordinary imaginable. This man, who happened to be on a fort which overlooked the harbour, perceived in one minute the inhabitants running from their houses in the utmost terror and confusion; the sea, as is usual on such occasions, receding to a considerable distance, returned in mountainous waves, foaming with the violence of the agitation, buried the inhabitants for ever in its bosom, and immediately all was silent: but the same wave which destroyed the town, drove a little boat by the place where the man stood, into which he threw himself, and was saved.

Cusco, the ancient capital of the Peruvian empire, lies in this mountainous country, at a distance from the sea, and has long been on the decline, but it is yet a very considerable place. The inhabitants, three parts of whom are Indians, are very industrious in manufacturing baize, cotton, and leather. They have also both here and in Quito, a particular taste for painting; and their productions in this way, some of which have been admired in Italy, are dispersed all over South America. Quito is next to Lima in populousness, if not superior to it. It is like Cusco, an inland city, and having no mines in its neighbourhood, is chiefly famous for its manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax, which supply the consumption over all the kingdom of Peru.

[INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND GOVERNMENT.] It is impossible to ascertain with any degree of precision the number of inhabitants in Peru. The city of Lima is said to contain 54,000; Guaguaquil 20,000; Potosi 25,000; La Paz 20,000, and Cusco 26,000. Among all the inhabitants of Peru, pride and laziness are said to be the most predominant passions. Avarice may likewise be attributed to some of them with a great deal of propriety.

The Indians and negroes are forbidden, under the severest penalties, to intermarry: for division between these two classes is the great instrument in which the Spaniards trust for the preservation of the colonies. Peru is governed by a viceroy, who is absolute; but it being impossible for him to superintend the whole extent of his government,

ment, he delegates a part of his authority to the several audiences and courts, established at different places throughout his territories. At Lima there is a treasury court for receiving a fifth of the mines, and certain taxes paid by the Indians, which belong to the King of Spain.

NATURAL HISTORY.] There are certain waters in this country, which, in their course, turn into stone; and fountains of liquid matter, called *coppey*, resembling pitch and tar, and used by seamen for the same purpose. On the coasts of Guayaquil and Guatimala are found a certain species of snails, which yield the purple dye so celebrated by the ancients, and which the moderns have supposed to have been lost. The shell that contains them is fixed to rocks, watered by the sea: it is of the size of a large nut. Various methods are used to extract the purple matter from the animal. There is no colour that can be compared to this either in lustre or permanence.

Under this head it may not be improper to make some observations upon that new substance called the Platina, and which may be considered as an *eighth* metal. In its native state it is mixed with gold and iron, and this at first gave rise to a suspicion that it was nothing more than a combination of these two metals; but late experiments of chymists fully prove, that it is a pure and simple metal, with properties peculiar to itself. It cannot be affected by any simple acid, or by any known solvent, except the aqua regia; it will not tarnish in the air, neither will it rust; it unites to the fixedness of gold, and to the property it has of not being susceptible of destruction, a hardness almost equal to that of iron, and a much greater difficulty of fusion: it is of an intermediate colour between that of iron and silver; it can be forged and extended into thin plates; and when dissolved in aqua regia, it may be made to assume, by precipitation, an infinite diversity of colours: and Count Milbey has succeeded in varying these precipitates so much, that he has had a picture painted, in the colouring of which, there is scarce any thing but platina made use of. Upon the whole, from considering the advantages of the platina, we cannot but conclude that this metal deserves, at least, from its superiority to all others, to share the title of king of the metals, of which gold has so long been in possession. The Peruvian bark, so famous at present for curing intermittent fevers, may likewise be mentioned in this place. The tree from which it is taken grows upon the slope of mountains, and is about the size of a common cherry tree. It is distinguished into three kinds; the red, yellow, and the white; but the red is found to be the best and most efficacious. The Jesuits carried this bark to Rome as early as 1639; but the natives are supposed to have been acquainted with its medicinal qualities many ages before.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] In treating of this country the mind is naturally led back to the barbarous and cruel conquerors of it, who, coming from the old world in quest of gold to satisfy their avarice, displayed scenes shocking to humanity. After the conquest, the country scarcely preserved any thing but its name, every thing assumed a new face. There were other edifices, other inhabitants, other occupations, other prejudices, and other religions.—See Robertson's History of America.

C H I L I.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

	Miles.	
Length	1260	} between { 25° and 44° S. Lat. 65° and 85° W. Long.
Breadth	580	

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED on the north, by Peru; by Paragua or La Plata, on the east; by Patagonia, on the south; and by the Pacific ocean, on the west. It lies on both sides of the Andes; Chili Proper lies on the west, and Cuyo or Cutio, on the east. The principal towns in the former are St. Jago and Baldivia; in the latter, St. John de Frontiera.

CLIMATE AND SOIL.] The climate of Chili is one of the most delightful in the world, being a medium between the intense heats of the torrid, and the piercing colds of the frigid zones. Along the coast of the Pacific ocean, they enjoy a fine temperate air, and a clear serene sky, most part of the year; but sometimes the winds that blow from the mountains, in winter, are exceedingly sharp. There are few places in this extensive country where the soil is not exuberantly rich; and were its natural advantages seconded by the industry of the inhabitants, Chili would be the most opulent kingdom in America.

ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.] The horses and mules of Chili are in great esteem, particularly the former. This breed of horses was originally carried from Old Spain, and instead of degenerating, have now become superior to the Spanish horses themselves: in beauty and gracefulness, they are not inferior to the famous Andalusian horses; and such is their value, that one of them is thought a present worthy the acceptance of a crowned head.

Prodigious numbers of oxen, goats, and sheep, are fattened in the luxuriant pastures of Chili, and indeed this is the only part of husbandry to which the inhabitants pay any considerable attention. An ox well fattened may be purchased for four dollars. Turkeys, geese, and all kinds of poultry are found here in the same profusion; wild fowl are also common, among which are wood pigeons, turtle-doves, partridges, and royal cirapicos. A very particular species of bird is found in Chili, called the awakener; it is about the size of a middling fowl; its plumage is black and white; has a thick neck; the head rather large, erect, and beautifully adorned with a tuft of feathers; its eyes are large, sharp, and lively; on the fore part of its wings are two spurs, about an inch in length, these are its weapons of defence against all other birds. It has obtained the name of the awakener from the notice it gives to all birds in time of danger; and this it does, by making a loud chattering noise, which immediately induces the other to fly from the enemy.

The coasts abound with many excellent fish: there are also vast numbers of whales and sea wolves. The soil produces Indian and European corn, hemp, grapes, and all other fruits. The European fruit trees are obliged to be propped to enable them to sustain the weight of the fruit; the orchards in particular yield great quantities of all sorts of apples; the strawberries are very large and most commonly red, but sometimes white and yellow. In many places orange trees are in bloom, and bear fruit throughout the year; olives also, and almond trees, thrive exceedingly well, and the inhabitants press

a kind of muscadée wine from their grapes, which far exceeds any of the kind made in Spain. The trunks of the vines are, in some places, said to be as thick as a man's body, and the grapes are amazingly large.

MINES.] Mines of gold, silver, copper, tin, quicksilver, iron and lead, abound in this country. Vast quantities of gold are washed down from the mountains by brooks and torrents; the annual amount of which, when manufactured, is estimated at no less than 800,000 dollars.

COMMERCE.] Chili has always had commercial connections with the neighbouring Indians on its frontiers, with Peru and with Paragua. The Indians in their transactions are found to be perfectly honest. Chili supplies Peru with hides, dried fruit, copper, salt meat, horses, hemp, and corn; and receives in exchange tobacco, sugar, cocoa, earthen ware, some manufactures made at Quito, and some articles of luxury brought from Europe. The ships sent from Calao on this traffic, which is reciprocally useful, were formerly bound for Conception bay, but now come to Valparaíso. During the course of near a century, no navigator in these tranquil seas would venture to lose sight of land, and then these voyages lasted a whole year. A pilot of the old world, having at length observed the winds, performed the navigation in one month. He was considered as a wizard, and was taken up by order of the inquisition, whose ignorance becomes an object of ridicule, when its cruelty doth not excite our abhorrence. The journal he produced was his vindication; and it plainly appeared that to perform the same voyage it was only necessary to keep clear of the coasts: his method was therefore universally adopted.

Chili sends to Paragua wines, brandy, oil, and chiefly gold; and receives in payment mules, wax, cotton, the herb of Paragua, negroes, and also much of the merchandize of the ancient hemisphere, before the merchants of Lima had obtained, either by bribery, or by their influence, that this last branch of commerce should be prohibited. The commerce between the two colonies is not carried on by sea; it hath been found more expeditious, safe, and even less expensive to go by land, though it is 354 leagues from St. Jago to Buennos Ayres, and more than forty leagues of the way are amidst the snows and precipices of the Cordeleras.

INHABITANTS, MANNERS, AND CUSTOMS.] The Indians in this country are still in a great measure unconquered; they live scattered in the deserts and the forests, and it is impossible to ascertain their numbers. It has already been mentioned, that those Indians, which are not subject to the Spanish yoke, are very honest in their commercial transactions, performing to a punctilio whatever they have promised; but, like almost all other Indians, they are very fond of spirituous liquors, and are eager to purchase them from every quarter. They live in small huts, which they build in the course of a day or two at farthest; and which they abandon when hard pushed by an enemy. They are brave and warlike, and all the attempts of the Spaniards to subdue them have proved ineffectual. It is almost equally difficult to ascertain the number of Spaniards in Chili. The Abbe Raynal says, there are 40,000 in the city of St. Jago; if this be true, the aggregate number in all the provinces of Chili must be more considerable than has been generally supposed. The character and manners of these people do not differ materially from those in Peru.

GOVERNMENT.] St. Jago is the capital of the State and the seat of the empire. The commandant there is subordinate to the viceroy of Peru in all matters relating to the government, to the finances, and to war; but he is independent of him as chief administrator of justice, and president of the royal audience. Eleven inferior officers, distributed in the province, are charged, under his orders, with the details of administration.

PARAGGUA, OR LA PLATA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 1500 } between { 12° and 37° S. Lat.
Breadth 1000 } { 50° and 75° W. Long.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED by Amazonia, on the north; by Brasil, east; by Patagonia, south; and by Peru and Chili, west.

It contains the following provinces:

Paragua, Parana, Guira, Uragua, Tucuman, Rio de la Plata.

RIVERS.] Besides a vast number of smaller rivers which water this country, there is the grand river La Plata, which deserves a particular description. A Modenese Jesuit, by the name of P. Cattanco, who sailed up this river, speaks in the following language concerning it: "While I resided in Europe, and read in books of history or geography that the river de la Plata was 150 miles in breadth, I considered it as an exaggeration, because in this hemisphere, we have no example of such vast rivers. When I approached its mouth, I had the most vehement desire to ascertain the breadth with my own eyes, and I have found the matter to be exactly as it was represented. This I deduce particularly from one circumstance: when we took our departure from Monte Viedo, a fort situated more than 100 miles from the mouth of the river, and where its breadth is considerably diminished, we sailed a complete day before we discovered the land on the opposite bank of the river; and when we were in the middle of the channel, we could not discover land on either side, and saw nothing but the sky and water, as if we had been in some great ocean. Indeed, we should have taken it to be sea, if the fresh water of the river, which was turbid like the Po, had not satisfied us that it was a river."

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE,] From the situation of this country, some parts of it must be extremely hot, from the almost vertical influence of the rays of the sun; while other parts must be pleasant and delightful. But the heat is in some measure abated by the gentle breezes, which generally begin about nine or ten o'clock in the morning, and continue the greatest part of the day. Some parts of the country are very mountainous; but in many others you find extensive and beautiful plains, where the soil is very rich, producing cotton, tobacco, and the valuable herb called Paragua, together with a variety of fruits. There are also prodigiously rich pastures, in which are bred such herds of cattle, that, it is said, the hides are the only part exported; while the flesh is left to be devoured by the ravenous beasts of the wilderness. Not long since, a horse might be purchased here for one dollar, and an ox, chosen out of several hundred, for a still more trifling sum.

COMMERCE AND CHIEF CITY.] Paragua sends annually into the kingdom of Peru as many as 1500 or 2000 mules. They travel over dreary deserts for the distance of 8 or 900 leagues. What is not man capable of doing when necessity, resolution, and avarice are united? neither deep and miry swamps, nor summits of lofty mountains covered with eternal snow, can bar his progress. The province of Tucuman furnishes to Potosi, annually, 16 or 18,000 oxen, and 4 or 5000 horses, brought forth and

reared upon its own territory. Paragua sends several articles of commerce to Spain, but they are all brought from neighbouring districts. The only article it furnishes from its own territory is hides.

Buenos Ayres is the capital of this country: its situation on the river La Plata is healthy and pleasant, and the air temperate: it is regularly built; its streets are wide, the houses are extremely low, and each of them is accommodated with a garden. The public and private buildings which, sixty years ago, were all made of earth, are of more solid and commodious construction, since the natives have learned the art of making brick and lime. The number of inhabitants is about 30,000. One side of the town is defended by a fortress with a garrison of 6 or 700 men. The town stands 180 miles from the sea; the ships get to it by sailing up a river that wants depth, is full of islands, shoals, and rocks, and where storms are more frequent and more dreadful than on the ocean. It is necessary to anchor every night on the spot where they come to; and on the most moderate days a pilot must go to sound the way for the ship: after having surmounted these difficulties, the ships are obliged, at the distance of three leagues from the town, to put their goods on board some light vessel, and to go to refit, and to wait for their cargoes at Incunado de Barragan, situated seven or eight leagues below.

INHABITANTS.] As to the number of inhabitants in this country, from the best information that can be obtained, there are not more than 100,000, including Spaniards, Indians, Negroes, and the mixed blood or *Cicoles*. The Spaniards exhibit much the same character here as in the other kingdoms already described.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] It is a circumstance well known to all who are acquainted with the history of South America, that long ago the Jesuits introduced themselves into this country, and made great efforts to civilize and christianize the natives. Their conduct and institutions open an abundant source of reflection. We are naturally led to inquire what could induce men to abandon the seat of ease and tranquillity; to traverse immense deserts; to climb the craggy cliffs of lofty mountains; to plunge into deep and miry swamps; to subject themselves to hunger, to thirst, to danger and misery of every kind; surrounded by fierce and unknown savages, whose characters they were unacquainted with, and whose suspicions might have armed them with vengeance in an instant; who neither knew nor cared to know the errand on which these missionaries came; whose manner of life was independent, and whose minds disdained the burdens of civilized life: I say, we wish to know what powerful motives could have inclined these missionaries to leave cultivated society, and encounter all these dangers? Was it the love of riches, a thirst for glory, or the good of mankind, that influenced their conduct? or were they influenced by a blind and misguided superstition? Whatever may have been their motives, if history speaks the truth, they have really made the inhabitants of this part of the new world more virtuous, more civil, and more happy.

PORTUGUESE AMERICA.

B R A Z I L.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.
 Length 2500 } between { the Equator and 35° S. Lat.
 Breadth 700 } { 35° and 60° W. Longitude.

BOUNDARIES.] **B**OUNDED by the mouth of the river Amazon and the Atlantic ocean, on the north; and by the same ocean, on the east; on the south by the river Plata; on the west, by morasses, lakes, torrents, rivers, and mountains, which separate it from Amazonia and the Spanish possessions. On the coast are three small islands, where ships touch for provisions on their voyage to the South Seas, viz. Fernando, St. Barbaro, and St. Catherine's.

BAYS, HARBOURS, AND RIVERS.] These are the harbours of Panambuco, All Saints, Rio Janeiro, the port of St. Vincent, the harbour of Gabriel, and the Port of St. Salvador. There are a great number of noble streams, which unite with the rivers Amazon and Plata, besides others which fall into the Atlantic ocean.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The climate of Brazil has been described by two eminent naturalists, Piso and Margrave, who observed it with a philosophical accuracy, to be temperate and mild, when compared with that of Africa: they ascribe this chiefly to the refreshing wind which blows continually from the sea. The air is not only cool, but chilly through the night, so that the natives kindle a fire every evening in their huts. As the rivers in this country annually overflow their banks, and leave a sort of slime upon the lands, the soil here must be in many places amazingly rich; and this corresponds with the best information upon the subject. The vegetable productions are Indian corn, sugar canes, tobacco, indigo, hides, ipecacuana, balsam, Brazil wood, which is of a red colour, hard and dry, and is chiefly used in dying, but not the red of the best kind. Here is also the yellow fustic, of use in dying yellow; and a beautiful piece of speckled wood, made use of in cabinet work. Here are five different sorts of palm trees, some curious ebony, and a great variety of cotton trees. This country abounds in horned cattle, which are hunted for their hides only, 20,000 being sent annually into Europe. There is also a plenty of deers, hares, and other game. Amongst the wild beasts found here, are tygers, porcupines, janouveras, and a fierce animal, somewhat like a greyhound; monkeys, sloths, and the topirassou, a creature between a bull and an ass, but without horns, and entirely harmless; the flesh is very good and has the flavour of beef. There is a numberless variety of fowl, wild and tame in this country: among these are turkeys, fine white hens and ducks. The remarkable birds are the humming bird; the lankima, sometimes called the unicorn bird, from its having a horn, two or three inches long, growing out of its forehead; the guira, famous for often changing its colour, being first black, then ash-coloured,

next white, afterwards scarlet, and last of all crimson: which colours grow richer and deeper the longer the bird lives. Among the abundance of fish with which the seas, lakes, and rivers of this country are stored, is the globe fish, so called from its form, which is so beset with spines like a hedge-hog, that it bids defiance to all fish of prey. But the most remarkable creature is the sea bladder, so called because it greatly resembles one, and swims on the surface of the waves; the inside is filled with air, except a small quantity of water, that serves to poise it. The skin is very thin and transparent, and, like a bubble raised in the water, reflects all the colours of the sky. Brazil breeds a great variety of serpents and venomous creatures, among which are the Indian salamander, a four-legged insect, the sting of which is mortal; the ibivaboca, a species of serpent, about seven yards long, and half a yard in circumference, whose poison is instantaneously fatal; the rattle snake, which there attains an enormous size; the liboyd or roe-buck snake, which authors inform us are capable of swallowing a roe-buck whole with his horns, being between twenty and thirty feet in length, and two yards in circumference. Besides those there are many other insects and serpents of a dangerous and venomous nature.

COMMERCE AND CHIEF TOWNS.] The trade of Brazil is very great, and increases every year; which is the less surprising, as the Portuguese have opportunities of supplying themselves with slaves for their several works, at a much cheaper rate than any other European power that has settlements in America, they being the only European nation that has established colonies in Africa, and from whence they import as many as 40,000 negroes annually. The exports of Brazil are diamonds, sugar, tobacco, hides, drugs and medicines; and they receive in return, woollen goods of all kinds, linens, laces, silks, hats, lead, tin, pewter, copper, iron, beef, and cheese. They also receive from Madeira a great quantity of wine, vinegar, and brandy; and from Azores, 25,000*l.* worth of other liquors.

ST. SALVADOR is the capital of Brazil. This city, which has a noble, spacious, and commodious harbour, is built on a high and steep rock, having the sea upon one side, a lake forming a crescent on the other. The situation makes it in a manner impregnable by nature, and they have besides added to it very strong fortifications. It is populous, magnificent, and beyond comparison the most gay and opulent in all Brazil.

MINES.] There are gold mines in many parts of this country, which have been wrought with considerable profit to government. The extraction of gold is neither very laborious nor dangerous in Brazil. It is sometimes on the surface of the soil, and this is the purest kind, and at other times it is necessary to dig for it 18 or 20 feet, but seldom lower. It is found in larger pieces upon the mountains and barren rocks than in the valleys, or on the borders of the river. Every man who discovers a mine, must give notice of it to the government. If the vein be thought of little consequence by persons appointed to examine it, it is always given up to the public. If it be declared to be a rich vein, the government reserve a portion of it to themselves. Another share is given to the commandant, a third to the intendant, and two shares are secured to the discoverer. The mines are obliged to deliver to the king of Portugal a fifth part of all the gold which is extracted. There are also many diamond mines, which have been discovered in this country; they are of all colours and also of every shade. The diamond has the red of the ruby, the orange of the hyacinth, the blue of the sapphire, and the green of the emerald. The last is the most scarce and dearest, when it is of a beautiful tint. Transparency and cleanness are the natural essential properties of the diamond.

NATIVES:]

NATIVES.] The native Brazilians are about the size of the Europeans, but not so stout. They are subject to fewer distempers, and are long lived. They wear no cloathing; the women wear their hair extremely long, the men cut their's short; the women wear bracelets of bones of a beautiful white, the men necklaces of the same; the women paint their faces, and the men their bodies. The food of the Brazilians is very simple; they live upon shell fish by the sea side, along the rivers by fishing, and in the forests by hunting; and when these fail, they live upon cassava and other roots. They are extremely fond of dancing and other amusements, and these amusements are not interrupted by the worship of a Supreme Being, for it is said they know of none, nor is their tranquillity disturbed by the dread of a future state, of which they have no idea. They have however their magicians, who, by strange contortions, so far work upon the credulity of the people, as to throw them into violent convulsions. If the impostures of these magicians are detected, they are immediately put to death, which serves in some measure to check the spirit of deceit. Every Brazilian takes as many wives as he chooses, and puts them away when he gets tired of them. When the women lie in, they keep their bed but a day or two; then the mother, hanging the child to her neck in a cotton scarf, returns to her usual occupation, without any kind of inconvenience. Travellers are received with distinguished marks of civility by the native Brazilians. Wherever they go they are surrounded with women, who wash their feet, and welcome them with the most obliging expressions. But it would be an unpardonable affront if they should leave the family where they were first entertained, in hopes of better accommodation in another. Some of these virtues, however, were more applicable to these natives, before they were corrupted by an intercourse with Europeans.

RELIGION.] Though the king of Portugal, as grand master of the order of Christ, be solely in possession of the titles; and though the produce of the crusade belongs entirely to him; yet in this extensive country, six bishoprics have been successively founded, which acknowledge for their superior the archbishopric of Bahia, established in the year 1552. The fortunate prelates, most of them Europeans, who fill these honourable sees, live in a very commodious manner, upon the emoluments attached to the function of their ministry, and upon a pension of 50l. and from that to 1250l. granted to them by the government. Among the inferior clergy, none but the missionaries, who are settled in the Indian villages, are paid; but the others find sufficient resources among the superstitious people, whom they are to edify, to instruct, and to comfort. Besides an annual tribute, paid by every family to the clergyman, he is entitled to two shillings for every birth, for every wedding, and every burial. Though there be not absolutely an inquisition in Brazil, yet the people of that country are not protected from the outrages of that barbarous institution.

GOVERNMENT.] The government of Brazil is in the viceroy, who has two councils; one for criminal, the other for civil affairs, in both of which he presides; but there is no part of the world where the lawyers are more corrupt, or the chicanery of their profession more practised.

Only half of the 16 Captainries, into which this country is divided, belong to the crown, the rest being fiefs made over to some of the nobility, in reward of their extraordinary services, who do little more than acknowledge the sovereignty of the king of Portugal.

HISTORY, &c.] The Portuguese discovered this country in the year 1500, but did not plant it till the year 1549, when they took possession of All Saints Bay, and built the city of St. Salvador, which is now the residence of the viceroy and archbishop.

FRENCH AMERICA.

The Dutch invaded Brazil in 1623, and subdued the northern provinces; but the Portuguese agreed in 1661, to pay the Dutch eight tons of gold to relinquish their interest in this country, which was accepted, and the Portuguese remained in peaceable possession of all Brazil till about the end of 1762, when the Spanish governor of Buenos Ayres, hearing of a war between Portugal and Spain, took, after a month's siege, the Portuguese frontier fortress, called St. Sacramento; but by the treaty of peace it was restored.

FRENCH AMERICA.

CAYENNE.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north and east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by Amazonia; and west, by Guiana, or Surinam. It extends 240 miles along the coast of Guiana, and nearly 300 miles within land, lying between the equator and the 5th degree north latitude.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The land along the coast is low, and very subject to inundations during the rainy seasons, from the multitude of rivers which rush down from the mountains with great impetuosity. Here the atmosphere is very hot, moist and unwholesome, especially where the woods are not cleared away; but on the higher parts where the trees are cut down, and the ground laid out in plantations, the air is more healthy, and the heat greatly mitigated by the sea breezes. The soil in many parts is very fertile, producing sugar, tobacco, Indian corn, fruits, and other necessities of life.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] The French have taken possession of an island, upon this coast, called also Cayenne. It is about 30 miles in circumference, and is very unhealthy; but having some good harbours, they have here some settlements, which raise sugar, coffee, and some other kinds of produce. The French established themselves here in 1635; but they afterwards abandoned the island, and the English took possession of it. Soon after the French returned and drove out the English, but were expelled in their turn by the Dutch, who kept their conquest but a short time, and then were subdued by the French, who still keep possession of it. The whole of Cayenne is an inconsiderable province, and therefore very little is related of it.

DUTCH AMERICA.

SURINAM, OR DUTCH GUIANA.

THIS province, the only one belonging to the Dutch, on the continent of America, is situated between 5° and 7° N. lat. having the mouth of the Orinoko and the Atlantic on the north; Cayenne east; Amazonia south, and Terra Firma west.

The

The Dutch claim the whole coast from the mouth of Oronoko to the river Marowyne, on which are situated their colonies of Essequibo, Demerara, Berbice, and Surinam. The latter begins with the river Saramacha, and ends with the Marowyne, including a length of coast of 120 miles.

RIVERS.] A number of fine rivers pass through this country, the principal of which are Essequibo, Surinam, Demerara, Berbice, and Conya. Essequibo is nine miles wide at its mouth, and is more than 300 miles in length. Surinam is a beautiful river, three quarters of a mile wide, navigable for the largest vessels four leagues, and for smaller vessels 60 or 70 miles further. Its banks, quite to the water's edge, are covered with evergreen mangrove trees, which render the passage up this river very delightful. The Demerara is about three quarters of a mile wide where it empties into the Surinam, is navigable for large vessels 100 miles; a hundred miles further are several falls of easy ascent, above which it divides into the south-west and south-east branches.

CLIMATE.] In the months of September, October, and November, the climate is unhealthy, particularly to strangers. The common diseases are putrid and other fevers, the dry belly-ach, and the dropsy.—100 miles back from the sea, you come to quite a different soil, a hilly country, a pure, dry, wholesome air, where a fire sometimes would not be disagreeable. Along the sea coast the water is brackish and unwholesome, the air damp and sultry.—The thermometer ranges from 75° to 90° through the year. A north-east breeze never fails to blow from about 9 o'clock in the morning through the day, in the hottest seasons. As the days and nights throughout the year are very nearly of equal length, the air can never become extremely heated, nor the inhabitants so greatly incommoded by the heat, as those who live at a greater distance from the equator. The seasons were formerly divided regularly into rainy and dry; but of late years so much dependence cannot be placed upon them, owing probably to the country's being more cleared, by which means a free passage is opened for the air and vapours.

WATER.] The water of the lower parts of the river is brackish, and unfit for use; and the inhabitants are obliged to make use of rain water, which is here uncommonly sweet and good. It is caught in cisterns placed under ground, and before drinking, is set in large earthen pots to settle, by which means it becomes very clear and wholesome. These cisterns are so large and numerous, that water is seldom scarce.

CHIEF TOWNS AND POPULATION.] Paramaribo, situated on Surinam river, 4 leagues from the sea, N. Lat. 6° W. Lon. 55° from London, is the principal town in Surinam. It contains about 2000 whites, one half of whom are Jews, and 8000 slaves. The houses are principally of wood, some few have glass windows, but generally they have wooden shutters. The streets are spacious and straight, and planted on each side with orange or tamarind trees.

About seventy miles from the sea, on the same river, is a village of about 40 or 50 houses, inhabited by Jews. This village and the town above mentioned, with the intervening plantations, contain all the inhabitants in this colony, which amount to 3200 whites, and 43,000 slaves. The buildings on the plantations are many of them costly, convenient, and airy. The country around is thinly inhabited with the native Indians, a harmless friendly set of beings. They are, in general, short of stature, but remarkably well made, of a light copper colour, straight black hair, without beards, high cheek bones, and broad shoulders. In their ears, noses, and hair, the women wear ornaments of silver, &c. Both men and women go naked. One nation or tribe of them tie the lower part of the leg of the female children, when young, with a cord

bound very tight for the breadth of 6 inches about the ankle, which cord is never afterwards taken off but to put on a new one, by which means the flesh, which should otherwise grow on that part of the leg, increases the calf to a great size, and leaves the bone below nearly bare. This, though it must render them very weak, is reckoned a great beauty by them. The language of the Indians appears to be very soft. They are mortal enemies to every kind of labour; but nevertheless manufacture a few articles, such as very fine cotton hammocks, earthen water pots, baskets, a red or yellow dye called *Roucou*, and some other trifles, all which they bring to town and exchange for such articles as they stand in need of.

They paint themselves red, and some are curiously figured with black. Their food consists chiefly of fish and crabs, and cassava, of which they plant great quantities, and this is almost the only produce they attend to. They cannot be said to be absolutely wandering tribes, but their huts being merely a few cross sticks covered with branches, so as to defend them from the rain and sun, they frequently quit their habitations, if they see occasion, and establish them elsewhere. They do not shun the whites, and have been serviceable against the runaway negroes.

Dr. Bancroft observes, that the inhabitants of Dutch Guiana are either whites, blacks, or the reddish brown aboriginal natives. The promiscuous intercourse of these different people have generated several intermediate casts, whose colours depend on their degree of consanguinity to either whites, blacks, negroes, or Indians.

SOIL, PRODUCTIONS, TRADE, &c.] Through the whole country runs a ridge of oyster-shells, nearly parallel to the coast, but three or four leagues from it, of a considerable breadth, and from four to eight feet deep, composed of shells exactly of the same nature as those which form the present coast: from this and other circumstances, there is great reason to believe that the land, from that distance from the sea, is all *new land*, rescued from the sea, either by some revolution in nature, or other unknown cause.

On each side of the rivers and creeks are situated the Plantations, containing from 500 to 2000 acres each, in number about 550 in the whole colony, producing at present annually about 16,000 hhds. of sugar, 12,000,000 lb. coffee, 700,000 lb. cocoa, 850,000 lb. cotton: all which articles (cotton excepted) have fallen off within 15 years, at least one third, owing to bad management, both here and in Holland, and to other causes. Of the proprietors of these plantations, not above 80 reside here. The sugar plantations have many of them water-mills, which being much more profitable than others, and the situation of the colony admitting of them, will probably become general; of the rest, some are worked by mules, others by cattle, but from the lowness of the country none by the wind. The estates are for the greatest part mortgaged for as much or more than they are worth, which greatly discourages any improvements which might otherwise be made. Was it not for the unfortunate situation of the colony in this and other respects, it is certainly capable of being brought to a great height of improvement; dyes, gum, oils, plants for medical purposes, &c. might, and undoubtedly will, at some future period, be found in abundance. Rum might be distilled here; indigo, ginger, rice, tobacco, have been, and may be farther cultivated, and many other articles. In the woods are found many kinds of good and durable timber, and some woods for ornamental purposes, particularly a kind of mahogany called *copic*. The soil is perhaps as rich and as luxuriant as any in the world; it is generally a rich, fat, clayey earth, lying in some places above the level of the rivers at high water, (which rises about 8 feet) and in most places below it. Whenever, from a continued course of cultivation for many years, a piece of land becomes impoverished,

poverished, (for manure is not known here) it is laid under water for a certain number of years, and thereby regains its fertility, and in the mean time a new piece of wood land is cleared. This country has never experienced those dreadful scourges of the West Indies, hurricanes; and droughts from the lowness of the land it has not to fear, nor has the produce ever been destroyed by insects or by the blast. In short, this colony, by proper management, might become equal to Jamaica, or any other. Land is not wanting; it is finely intersected by noble rivers, and abundant creeks; the soil is of the best kind; it is well situated, and the climate is not very unhealthy, and is growing better, and will continue so to do, the more the country is cleared of its woods, and cultivated.

ANIMALS, FISH, SERPENTS, &c.] The rivers abound with fish, some of which are good; at certain seasons of the year there is plenty of turtle. The woods abound with plenty of deer, hares, and rabbits, a kind of buffaloe, and two species of wild hogs, one of which (the peccary) is remarkable for having its navel on the back.

The woods are infested with several species of tygers, but with no other ravenous or dangerous animals. The rivers are rendered dangerous by alligators, from four to seven feet long, and a man was a short time since crushed between the jaws of a fish, but its name is not known. Scorpions and tarantulas are found here of a large size and great venom, and other insects without number, some of them very dangerous and troublesome. The torporific eel also, the touch of which, by means of the bare hand or any conductor, has the effect of a strong electrical shock. Serpents also, some of which are venomous, and others, as has been asserted by many credible persons, are from 25 to 50 feet long. In the woods are monkeys, the sloth, and parrots in all their varieties; also some birds of beautiful plumage, among others the flamingo, but few or no singing birds.

MILITARY STRENGTH, GOVERNMENT, &c.] The river Surinam is guarded by a fort and two redoubts at the entrance, and a fort at Paramaribo, but none of them of any strength, so that one or two frigates would be sufficient to make themselves masters of the whole colony, and never was there a people who more ardently wished for a change of government than the inhabitants of this colony do at this time. The many grievances they labour under, and the immense burthen of taxes, which almost threaten the ruin of the colony, make them in some measure excusable in their general desire to change the Dutch for a British or French government. The colony is not immediately under the States General, but under a company in Holland, called the Directors of Surinam, (a company first formed by the States General, but now supplying its own vacancies) by them are appointed the governor and all the principal officers both civil and military. The interior government consists of a governor, and a supreme and inferior council; the members of the latter are chosen by the governor from a double nomination of the principal inhabitants, and those of the former in the same manner. By these powers, and by a magistrate presiding over all criminal affairs, justice is executed, and laws are enacted necessary for the interior government of the colony; those of a more general and public nature are enacted by the directors, and require no approbation here by the court.

The colony is guarded farther by about 1600 regular troops paid by the directors. These troops, together with a corps of about 250 free negroes, paid by the court here, and another small corps of chasseurs, and so many slaves as the court thinks fit to order from the planters, from time to time, are dispersed at posts placed at proper distances on a *Cordon*, surrounding the colony on the land side, in order, as far as pos-

sible, to defend the distant plantations and the colony in general, from the attacks of several dangerous bands of runaway slaves, which from very small beginnings have, from the natural prolificacy of the negro race, and the continual addition of fresh fugitives, arrived at such an height as to have cost the country very great sums of money and much loss of men, without being able to do these negroes any effectual injury.*

HISTORY.] This colony was first possessed by the French as early as the year 1630 or 40, and was abandoned by them on account of its unhealthy climate. In the year 1650 it was taken by some Englishmen, and in 1662 a charter was granted by Cha. II. About this time it was considerably augmented by the settlement of a number of Jews, who had been driven out of Cayenne and the Brazils, whose descendants (with other Jews) compose at present one half of the white inhabitants of the colony, and are allowed great privileges. In 1667 it was taken by the Dutch, and the English having got possession about the same time of the then Dutch colony of New York, each party retained its conquest; the English planters most of them retired to Jamaica, leaving their slaves behind them, whose language is still English, but so corrupted as not to be understood at first by an Englishman.

ABORIGINAL AMERICA.

Or that Part which the ABORIGINAL INDIANS possess.

AMAZONIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 1400 }	between {	the Equator and 20°
Breadth 900 }		South Latitude.

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Terra Firma and Guiana; east, by Brazil; south, by Paragua; and west, by Peru.

RIVERS.] The river Amazon is the largest in the known world. This river, so famous for the length of its course, that great vassal of the sea, to which it brings the tribute it has received from so many of its own vassals, seems to be produced by innumerable torrents, which rush down with amazing impetuosity from the eastern declivity of the Andes, and unite in a spacious plain to form this immense river. In its progress of 3300 miles, it receives the waters of a prodigious number of rivers, some of which come from far, and are very broad and deep. It is interspersed with an infinite number of islands, which are too often overflowed to admit of culture. It falls into the Atlantic ocean under the equator, and is there 150 miles broad.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCTIONS.] The air is cooler in this country than could be expected, considering it is situated in the torrid zone. This is partly owing to the

* The foregoing account of Surinam was principally taken from a letter of Mr. Aphorpe to his father. See American Apollo.

heavy rains which occasion the rivers to overflow their banks one half of the year, and partly to the cloudiness of the weather, which obscures the sun great part of the time he is above the horizon. During the rainy season the country is subject to dreadful storms of thunder and lightning.

The soil is extremely fertile, producing cocoa nuts, pine apples, bananas, plantains, and a great variety of tropical fruits; cedar, redwood, pak, ebony, logwood, and many other sorts of dying wood; together with tobacco, sugar canes, cotton, potatoes, balsam, honey, &c. The woods abound with tygers, wild boars, buffaloes, deer, and game of various kinds. The rivers and lakes abound with fish. Here are also sea-cows and turtles; but the crocodiles and water serpents render fishing a dangerous employment.

WOMEN.] As early as the time of Hercules and Theseus, the Greeks had imagined the existence of a nation of Amazons; with this fable they embellished the history of all their heroes, not excepting that of Alexander; and the Spaniards, infatuated with this dream of antiquity, transferred it to America. They reported that a republic of female warriors actually existed in America, who did not live in society with men, and only admitted them once a year for the purposes of procreation. To give the more credit to this romantic story, it was reported, not without reason, that the women in America were all so unhappy, and were treated with such contempt and inhumanity by the men, that many of them had agreed to shake off the yoke of their tyrants. It was further said, that being accustomed to follow the men into the forests, and to carry their provisions and baggage when they went out to fight or to hunt, they must necessarily have been inured to hardships, and rendered capable of forming so bold a resolution. Since this story has been propagated, infinite pains have been taken to find out the truth of it, but no traces could ever be discovered.

NATIVES.] These natives, like all the other Americans, are of a good stature, have handsome features, long black hair, and copper complexions. They are said to have a taste for the imitative arts, especially painting and sculpture, and make good mechanics. Their cordage is made of the barks of trees, and their sails of cotton; their hatchets of tortoise shells or hard stones; their chissels, planes, and wimbles, of the horns and teeth of wild beasts, and their canoes are trees hollowed. They spin and weave cotton cloth, and build their houses with wood and clay, and thatch them with reeds. Their arms in general are darts and javelins, bows and arrows, with targets of cane or fish skins. The several nations are governed by their chiefs or cachiques; it being observable that the monarchical form of government has prevailed almost universally, both among the ancient and modern barbarians; doubtless, on account of its requiring a much less refined policy than the republican system. The regalia, which distinguish the chiefs are a crown of parrots' feathers, a chain of tygers' teeth or claws, which hangs round the waist, and a wooden sword.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS.] The mind of a good man is pleased with the reflection, that any part of South America has escaped the ravages of European conquerors. This country has hitherto remained unsubdued. The original inhabitants enjoy their native freedom and independence.

PATAGONIA.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length 1100 } between { 35° and 54° South Latitude.
 Breadth 350 }

BOUNDARIES.] BOUNDED north, by Chili and Paragua; east, by the Atlantic ocean; south, by the Straits of Magellan; west, by the Pacific ocean.

CLIMATE, SOIL, AND PRODUCE.] The climate is said to be much colder in this country, than in the north, under the same parallels of latitude; which is imputed to its being in the vicinity of the Andes, which pass through it, being covered with eternal snow. It is almost impossible to say what the soil would produce, as it is not at all cultivated by the natives. The northern parts are covered with wood, among which is an inexhaustible fund of large timber; but towards the south it is said there is not a single tree large enough to be of use to mechanics. There are, however, good pastures, which feed incredible numbers of horned cattle and horses, first carried there by the Spaniards, and now increased in an amazing degree.

INHABITANTS.] Patagonia is inhabited by a variety of Indian tribes, among which are the Patagons, from whom the country takes its name; the Pampas and the Costores. They all live upon fish and game, and what the earth produces spontaneously. Their huts are thatched, and, notwithstanding the rigour of the climate, they wear no other clothes than a mantle made of seal skin, or the skin of some beast, and that they throw off when they are in action. They are exceedingly hardy, brave, and active, making use of their arms, which are bows and arrows headed with flints, with amazing dexterity.

Magellan, who first discovered the straits which bear his name, and after him Commodore Biron, have reported, that there exists, in these regions, a race of giants; but others, who have sailed this way, contradict the report. Upon the whole we may conclude that this story is like that of the female republic of Amazons.

The Spaniards once built a fort upon the straits, and left a garrison in it to prevent any other European nation passing that way into the Pacific ocean; but most of the men perished by hunger, whence the place obtained the name of Port Famine; and since that fatal event, no nation has attempted to plant colonies in Patagonia. As to the religion or government of these savages, we have no certain information. Some have reported, that these people believe in invisible powers, both good and evil; and that they pay a tribute of gratitude to the one, and deprecate the wrath and vengeance of the other.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS UPON SOUTH AMERICA.

We have now traversed the several provinces of that extensive region, which is comprehended between the isthmus of Darien and the fifty-fourth degree of South latitude. We have taken a cursory view of the rivers, the soil, the climate, the productions, the commerce, the inhabitants, &c. It only remains now, that we should make such other general observations as naturally occur upon the subject.

The history of Columbus, together with his bold and adventurous actions in the discovery of this country, are sufficiently known to all who have paid any attention to history.

history. His elevated mind suggested to him ideas superior to any other man of his age, and his aspiring genius prompted him to make greater and more noble efforts for new discoveries. He crossed the extensive Atlantic, and brought to view a world unheard of by the people of the ancient hemisphere. This excited an enterprising, avaricious spirit among the inhabitants of Europe; and they flocked to America for the purposes of carnage and plunder. Accordingly, a scene of barbarity has been acted, of which South America has been the principal theatre, which shocks the human mind, and almost flatters belief. No sooner had the Spaniards set foot upon the American continent, than they laid claim to the soil, to the mines, and to the services of the natives, wherever they came. Countries were invaded, kingdoms were overturned, innocence was attacked, and happiness had no asylum. Despotism and cruelty, with all their terrible scourges, attended their advances in every part. They went forth, they conquered, they ravaged, they destroyed. No deceit, no cruelty was too great to be made use of to satisfy their avarice. Justice was disregarded, and mercy formed no part of the character of these inhuman conquerors. They were intent only on the prosecution of schemes most degrading and most scandalous to the human character. In South America, the kingdoms of Terra Firma, of Peru, of Chili, of Paragua, of Brazil, and of Guiana, successively fell a sacrifice to their vicious ambition. The history of their several reductions is too lengthy to be inserted in a work of this kind.* Let us then turn from these distressing scenes; let us leave the political world, where nothing but spectacles of horror are presented to our view; where scenes of blood and carnage distract the imagination; where the avarice, injustice, and inhumanity of men furnish nothing but uneasy sensations; let us leave these, I say, and enter the natural world, whose laws are constant and uniform, and where beautiful, grand, and sublime objects continually present themselves to our view.

We have already given a description of those beautiful and spacious rivers which every where intersect this country; the next thing that will engage our attention is that immense chain of mountains, which runs from one end of the continent to the other. At sight of these enormous masses, which rise to such prodigious heights above the humble surface of the earth, where almost all mankind have fixed their residence; of those masses, which in one part are crowned with impenetrable and ancient forests; that have never resounded with the stroke of the hatchet, and in another, raise their towering tops, and stop the clouds in their course, while in other parts they keep the traveller at a distance from their summits, either by ramparts of ice that surround them, or from volleys of flame issuing forth from the frightful and yawning caverns; masses giving rise to impetuous torrents descending with dreadful noise from their open sides, to rivers, fountains, and boiling springs: at these appearances, I say, every beholder is fixed in astonishment.

The height of the most elevated point in the Pyrenees is, according to Mr. Cossini, 6,646 feet. The height of the mountain Gemmi, in the canton of Berne, is 10,110 feet. The height of the pike of Teneriffe is 13,178 feet. The height of the Chimborazo, the most elevated point of the Andes, is 20,280 feet. Upon comparison, the highest part of the Andes is 7,102 feet higher than the pike of Teneriffe, the most elevated mountain known in the ancient hemisphere.

* The reader will find the best history of these tragical scenes in Dr. Robertson's History of South America.

THIS LIST OF

AMERICAN QUADRUPEDS

Is borrowed from Mr. PENNANT'S Second Edition of his ARCTIC ZOOLOGY, page CCLXIX of the INTRODUCTION. The references are to the Second Edition of his History of Quadrupeds, published in 1792.—The Editor must express his Gratitude to Mr. PENNANT for his obliging Permission.

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

H O O F E D.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
I. Ox.	Bison, No. 6.	In parts of Lithuania, and about mount Caucasus; except there, universally domesticated.	To the west of Canada, and as low as Louisiana. In New Mexico, on the western side of North America.
	Musk, No. 9.		To the north of Hudson's Bay, from Churchill river to lat. 73, and among the Chippinaux, and in New Mexico.
II. SHEEP.	Wild, p. 36.	Sardinia. Corsica. Crete. North of India. Persian Alps. About the Onon and Argun, in Siberia. Mongolia, to lat. 60. East of the Lena, and quite to Kamtschatka.	Suspected to be found in California; but not on the best authorities.
III. DEER.	Moose, No. 42.	Norway. Sweden, to lat. 64. Russia. Siberia, as low as lat. 53. As far east as Lake Baikal; and in the north of China to the north of Corea. lat. 45.*	Hudson's Bay. Canada. Nova Scotia. New England; and near the northern part of the river Ohio.
	Rein, No. 43.	Lapland. Norway. Samoi- edea. Along the Arctic coasts, to Kamtschatka. In the Urallian moun- tains	Hudson's Bay. Northern parts of Canada. La- brador. Island of New- foundland.

* Or lat. 42. according to Mr. Zimmerman's new map.

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

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GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
		tains to Kungur, in lat. 57. 10. About Lake Baikal. Spitzbergen. Greenland.	
	Stag, No. 45.	Norway, and most part of Europe to the south. In the north of Asia. China. Barbary. E.	From Canada, over all parts of North America. Mexico.
	Great Stag	In various parts of North America; from New England, to the Allegany Chain behind Pennsylvania. It is in America usually called the round-horned Elk. See Jefferson, p. 88. This as yet has never been fully described. Communicated by Mr. Pennant from his MS. notes.	
	Virginian, No. 46.	— — —	From the provinces south of Canada to Florida. Perhaps in Guiana.
	Mexican Roe, } No. 52. }	— — —	Interior north western parts of America? Mexico.
	Roe, No. 51.	Norway. Sweden. Most part of Europe, except Russia. Scotland.	According to Charlevoix, in Canada?

D I G I T A T E D.

DIV. I.

IV. Dog.	Wolf, No. 137.	From the Arctic circle to the most southern part of Europe. In Asia, from the circle to Persia. Kamtschatka. All parts of Africa.	From Hudson's Bay to the most southern parts of North America.
	Arctic Fox, No. } 140. }	Within the whole Arctic circle. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Greenland. Finmark. North of Siberia. Kamtschatka, and its isles.	Hudson's Bay. The isles in the high latitudes on the western side of America.
	Common Fox, } No. 139. }	In all parts of Europe. and the cold and temperate	From Hudson's Bay, cross the continent to the Fox

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
		perate parts of Asia. Kamtschatka, and its furthest isles. Iceland.	Fox Isles. Labrador. Newfoundland. Canada. Not further south : a variety only, the Brandt Fox, in Pennsylvania.
	Grey, No. 142.	— —	From New England to the southern end of North America.
	Silvery, No. 143.	— —	In Louisiana.
V. CAT.	Puma, No. 160.	— —	From Canada to Florida ; thence through Mexico, quite to Quito in Peru.
	Lynx, No. 170.	Forests of the north of Europe, and many of the south. Spain. North of Asia, and the mountains in the north of India.*	From Canada, over most parts of North America.
	Bay Lynx, No. } 171. }	— —	In the province of New York.
	Mountain, No. } 168. }	— —	Carolina, and perhaps other parts of North America.
VI. BEAR.	Polar, No. 175.	Within the whole polar circle of Europe and Asia.	The same in America ; also as low as Hudson's Bay and Labrador.
	Black, No. 174.	Jeso Masima, north of Japan ; perhaps in Japan.	In all parts of North America.
	Brown, ibid.	In most parts of Europe, north and south. The same in Asia, even as far as Arabia. Barbary.† Ceylon. Kamtschatka.	To the north-west of Hudson's Bay, and on the western side of America. About Nootka Sound. On the Andes of Peru.‡
	Wolverene, } No. 176. }	North of Norway. Lap- land. North of Siberia. Kamtschatka.	As far north as the Copper River, and south as the country between lake Huron and Superior. On the western side of North America.
	Raccoon, No. 178.	— —	From New England to Florida. Mexico. Isles of Maria, near Cape Corientes, in the South Sea.

VII. BADGER.

* As I have been assured by Doctor Pallas, since the publication of my History of Quadrupeds.

† Shaw's Travels, 249.

‡ Condamine's Travels, 82.—Ulloa's Voyage, i. 461.

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

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GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
VII. BADGER.	Common, No. 179.	In the south of Norway, and all the more southern parts of Europe. In the temperate parts of Asia, as far as China eastward. E.	In the neighbourhood of Hudson's Bay. Terra de Labrador, and as low as Pennsylvania.
VIII. OPOSSUM.	Virginian, No. 181.	— —	As far north as Canada, and from thence to the Brasils and Peru.
IX. WEESEL.	Common, No. 192.	Most parts of Europe. Siberia. Kamtschatka. Barbary. E.	Hudson's Bay. Newfoundland. As far south as Carolina.
	Stoat, No. 193.	All the northern parts of Europe and Asia; and as far as Kamtschatka and the Kuril isles. E.	Hudson's Bay, and as low as Newfoundland and Canada.
	Pine Martin, No. 200.	North of Europe. Rare in France. Only in the west of Siberia. In China. E.	Northern parts of North America, quite to the South Sea.
	Pekan, No. 204.	— —	Hudson's Bay. Canada.
	Vison, No. 205.	— —	Canada.
	Sable, No. 201.	Siberia. Kamtschatka. Kuril isles.	Canada.
	Fisher, No. 202.	— —	Hudson's Bay. New England. Pennsylvania.
	Striated, No. 217.	— —	Pennsylvania to Louisiana.
	Skunk, No. 218.	— —	From Hudson's Bay to Peru.
X. OTTER.	Common, No. 226.	Northern Europe and Asia. Kamtschatka. E.	From Hudson's Bay to Louisiana.
	Lesser, No. 228.	About the banks of the Yaik. Poland. Lithuania. Finland.	From New Jersey to Carolina.
	Sea, No. 230.	Kamtschatka. Kuril isles.	Western coasts of America.

D I V. II.

XI. HARE.	Varying, No. 242.	Scandinavia. Russia. Siberia. Kamtschatka. Greenland. E.	Hudson's Bay. About Cook's river.
	American, No. 243.	— —	From Hudson's Bay to the extremity of North America.
	Alpine, No. 248.	From the Altaic chain to lake Baikal; thence to Kamtschatka.	Aleutian isles. Possibly the west of North America.

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
XII. BEAVER.	Castor, No. 251.	Scandinavia. About the Jenefci and Konda. In Cafan, and about the Yaik.	From Hudfon's Bay to Louifiana.
	Musk, No. 252.	— —	From Hudfon's Bay to Louifiana.
XIII. PORCUPINE.	Canada, No. 257.	— —	From Hudfon's Bay to Virginia.
XIV. MARMOT.	Quebec, No. 259.	— —	Canada.
	Maryland, No. 260. }	— —	From Pennsylvania to the Bahama ifles.
	Hoary, No. 261.	— —	North of North America.
	Tail-lefs, No. 265.	— —	Hudfon's Bay.
	Earlefs, No. 263.	Bohemia. Austria. Hungary. From the Occa over the temperate parts of Siberia. About Jakutz. Kamtschatka.	Western fide of North America.
XV. SQUIRREL.	Hudfon, No. 274.	— —	Hudfon's Bay. Labrador.
	Grey, No. 272.	— —	New England to Peru and Chili.
	Black, No. 273.	— —	New England to Mexico.
	Flying, No. 283.	— —	From the fouthern part of Hudfon's Bay to Mexico.
	Hooded, No. 284.	— —	Virginia.
	Severn River, No. 282. }	— —	Hudfon's Bay.
XVI. DORMOUSE.	Striped, No. 286.	Siberia, as high as lat. 65.	Hudfon's Bay to Louifiana.
	English? No. 289.	Sweden, and all Europe fouth. E. Carolina?	
XVII. RAT.	Black, No. 297.	All Europe. Many of the South Sea iflands: E. Mongolia.	The rocks among the Blue Mountains.
	Amer. No. 299.		North America.
	Water, No. 300.	From Lapland to the fouth of Europe. From Peterfburgh to Kamtschatka, and as low as the Cafpian fea, and Perfia. E.	From Canada to Carolina.
	Moufe, No. 301.	Univerfal. E.	Among the rocks, with the Black Rat.
	Field, No. 302.	All Europe. Not beyond the Urallian chain. E.	Hudfon's Bay. New York.
	Virginian, No. 307. }	— —	Virginia.
	Labrador, No. 295. }	— —	Hudfon's Bay. Labrador.
			Hudfon's

TABLE OF QUADRUPEDS.

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GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
	Hudson's, } No. 319. }	— —	Same places.
	Meadow, } No. 322. }	Sweden. All temperate Russia. In Siberia only to the Irtysh. E.	Hudson's Bay. Newfoundland.
	Hare-tailed ? } No. 320. }	Siberia.	Hudson's Bay.
XVIII. SHREW.	Fœtid, No. 341.	Europe. Siberia. Kamtschatka. E.	Hudson's Bay. Carolina.
XIX. MOLE.	Long-tailed, } No. 352. }	— —	New York. Interior parts of Hudson's Bay.
	Radiated, } No. 351. }	— —	New York.
	Brown, No. 353.	— —	New York.

DIV. III.

XX. WALRUS.	Arctic, No. 373.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Nova Zemlja. The coast of the Frozen Sea. And on the Asiatic side, to the south of Behring's streights, as low as lat. 62. 50.	Hudson's Bay. Gulph of St. Laurence. On the western side of America, as low as lat. 58. 42.
XXI. SEAL.	Common, } No. 372. }	All the European and northern Asiatic seas, even to the farthest north. Kamtschatka. E.	Northern seas of America.
	Rubbon, No. 380.	The Kuril isles.	
	Great No. 382.	Greenland and Kamtschatka. E.	West of North America.
	Leporine, } No. 381. }	White Sea. Iceland. Spitzbergen. Kamtschatka.	There can be no doubt that every species of Seal is found on the American coast.
	Hooded, No. 285.		
	Harp, No. 385.	Spitzbergen. Greenland. Iceland. White Sea. Kamtschatka.	
	Rough, No. 283.		
	Urfine, No. 387.	Kamtschatka. New Zealand.	West of America, and from the isle of Gallipagos to New Georgia.
	Leonine, No. 389.	Kamtschatka.	West of America. Streights of Magellan. Statenland. Falkland isles.
XXII. MANATI	Whale-tailed, } No. 390. }	Behring's isle, and near the isle of St. Mauritius.	West of America.
	Sea Ape, p. 392.	— —	West of America.

DIV.

DIV. IV.

GENUS.	HIST. QUADR.	OLD WORLD.	NEW WORLD.
XXIII. BAT.	New York, } No. 403. }	New Zealand.	New York.
	Long-haired, } No. 83. }	— —	Carolina.
	Noctule, No. 407.	France. E.	Hudson's Bay.

WEST INDIA ISLANDS.

BETWEEN North and South America lie a multitude of islands, which are called the West Indies, and which, such as are worth cultivation, now belong to five European powers, as Great Britain, Spain, France, Holland, and Denmark, as follows:

The BRITISH claim

Jamaica,	St. Vincent,
Barbadoes,	Nevis,
St. Christopher's,	Montserrat,
Antigua,	Barbuda,
Grenada, and the Gre-	Anguilla,
nadines,	Bermudas,
Dominica,	The Bahama Islands.

SPAIN claims

Cuba,	Trinidad,
Part of St. Domingo,	Margaretta,
or Hispaniola,	Juan Fernandes, in the Pa-
Porto Rico,	cific Ocean.

The FRENCH claim

Part of St. Domingo,	St. Bartholomew, Descada,
Martinico,	and Marigalante,
Gaudalupe,	Tobago. *
St. Lucia,	

* Since the commencement of the present war, the English nation has taken from the French the island of Tobago; and by intelligence received while this work was in the press, it appears that great part of St. Domingo has surrendered to the English arms, an example which will probably be followed by all the other French sugar islands in the West Indies.

The Dutch claim

The Island of St. Eustatia,

Curassou, or Curacoa, Saba.

DENMARK claims

The Islands of St. Croix,

St. Thomas, and St. John's.

The climate in all the West India islands is nearly the same, allowing for these accidental differences which the several situations and qualities of the lands themselves produce. As they lie within the tropics, and the sun goes quite over their heads, passing beyond them to the north, and never returning farther from any of them than about thirty degrees to the south, they would be continually subjected to an extreme and intolerable heat, if the trade winds, rising gradually as the sun gathers strength, did not blow in upon them from the sea, and refresh the air in such a manner, as to enable them to attend their concerns even under the meridian sun. On the other hand, as the night advances, a breeze begins to be perceived, which blows smartly from the land, as it were from the center, towards the sea, to all points of the compass at once.

By the same remarkable Providence in the disposing of things, it is that when the sun has made a great progress towards the tropic of Cancer, and becomes in a manner vertical, he draws after him such a vast body of clouds, which shield them from his direct beams, and dissolving into rain, cool the air, and refresh the country, thirsty with the long drought, which commonly prevails from the beginning of January to the latter end of May.

The rains in the West Indies are like floods of water, poured from the clouds with a prodigious impetuosity; the rivers suddenly rise; new rivers and lakes are formed, and in a short time all the low country is under water.* Hence it is, that the rivers which have their source within the tropics, swell and overflow their banks at a certain season; but so mistaken were the ancients in their idea of the torrid zone, that they imagined it to be dried and scorched up with a continual and fervent heat, and to be for that reason uninhabitable; when, in reality, some of the largest rivers of the world have their course within its limits, and the moisture is one of the greatest inconveniences of the climate in several places.

The rains make the only distinction of seasons in the West Indies; the trees are green the whole year round; they have no cold, no frosts, no snows, and but rarely some hail; the storms of hail are, however, very violent when they happen, and the hailstones very great and heavy. Whether it be owing to this moisture, which alone does not seem to be a sufficient cause, or to a greater quantity of a sulphureous acid, which predominates in the air of this country, metals of all kinds that are subject to the action of such causes rust and canker in a very short time: and this cause, perhaps, as much as the heat itself, contributes to make the climate of the West Indies unfriendly and unpleasant to an European constitution.

It is in the rainy season (principally in the month of August, more rarely in July and September) that they are assailed by hurricanes, the most terrible calamity to which they are subject (as well as the people in the East Indies) from the climate; this destroys, at a stroke, the labours of many years, and prostrates the most exalted hopes of the planter, and at the moment when he thinks himself out of danger. It is a sudden and violent storm of wind, rain, thunder, and lightning, attended with a furious swelling of the seas, and sometimes with an earthquake; in short, with every circumstance which

the

* See Wafer's journey across the Isthmus of Darien.

the elements can assemble, that is terrible and destructive. First, they see a prelude to the ensuing havoc, whole fields of sugar canes whirled into the air, and scattered over the face of the country. The strongest trees of the forest are torn up by the roots, and driven about like stubble; their windmills are swept away in a moment; their utensils, the fixtures, the ponderous copper boilers, and stills of several hundred weight are wrenched from the ground, and battered to pieces; their houses are no protection; the roofs are torn off at one blast; whilst the rain, which in an hour raises the water five feet, rushes in upon them with an irresistible violence.

The grand staple commodity of the West Indies is sugar; this commodity was not at all known to the Greeks and Romans, though it was made in China, in very early times, from whence was derived the first knowledge of it; but the Portuguese were the first who cultivated it in America, and brought it into request, as one of the materials of a very universal luxury in Europe. It is not determined whether the cane, from which this substance is taken, be a native of America, or brought thither to their colony of Brazil, by the Portuguese, from India and the coast of Africa; but, however that matter may be, in the beginning they made the most, as they still do the best, sugars which come to market in this part of the world. The juice within the sugar cane is the most lively, excellent, and the least cloying sweet in nature; which, sucked raw, has proved extremely nutritive and wholesome. From the molasses, rum is distilled, and from the scummings of the sugar a meaner spirit is procured. The tops of the canes, and the leaves which grow upon the joints, make very good provender for their cattle; and the refuse of the cane, after grinding, serves for fire; so that no part of this excellent plant is without its use.

They compute that, when things are well managed, the rum and molasses pay the charges of the plantation, and the sugars are clear gain. However, a man cannot begin a sugar plantation of any consequence, not to mention the purchase of the land, which is very high, under a capital of at least 5000l.

The quantity of rum and molasses exported from all the British West India islands, in 1787, 1788, and 1789, to all parts, was, accurately, as follows:

	Gallons.		Gallons.	
1787 Rum -	5,496,147	of which	1,660,155	came to the United States.
Molasses	30,580	do.	4,200	do.
1788 Rum -	6,770,332	do.	1,541,093	do.
Molasses	28,812	do.	3,928	do.
1789 Rum	9,492,177	do.	1,485,461	do.
Molasses	21,192	do.	1,000	do. *

The negroes in the plantations are subsisted at a very easy rate. This is generally by allotting to each family of them a small portion of land, and allowing them two days in the week, Saturday and Sunday, to cultivate it; some are subsisted in this manner, but others find their negroes a certain portion of Guinea or Indian corn, and to some a salt herring, or a small portion of bacon or salt pork, a day. All the rest of the charge consists in a cap, a shirt, a pair of breeches, and a blanket; and the profit of their labour yields ten or twelve pounds annually. The price of men negroes, upon their first arrival, is from thirty to thirty-six pounds, women and grown boys fifty shillings less; but such negro families as are acquainted with the business of the islands generally

* Mr. Baillie, in his debate on the motion for the abolition of the slave trade, April, 1792, asserts—that the exports and imports to and from the West India islands and Africa, amount annually to 10,000,000l. sterling, which gives employment to 300,000 tons of shipping, and about 25,000 seamen.

bring above forty pounds upon an average one with another; and there are instances of a single negro man, expert in the business, bringing one hundred and fifty guineas; and the wealth of a planter is generally computed from the number of slaves he possesses.

The islands of the West Indies lie in the form of a bow, or semi-circle, stretching almost from the coast of Florida north, to the river Orinoko, in the main continent of South America. Some call them the Caribbees, from the first inhabitants; though this is a term that most geographers confine to the Leeward Islands. Sailors distinguish them into the Windward and Leeward islands, with regard to the usual courses of ships, from Old Spain, or the Canaries, to Carthagena, or New Spain and Porto Bello. The geographical tables and maps distinguish them into Great and Little Antilles.

BRITISH WEST INDIES.*

JAMAICA.

THIS island, the most valuable appendage to the British dominions in America, is one hundred and eighty miles long and sixty broad; of an oval form, lying between 17° 34' North latitude, and about the longitude of Philadelphia: containing 3,500,000 acres of land; 600,000 of which are cleared, and about 400,000 cultivated.

DIVISIONS AND POPULATION.] Jamaica is divided as follows:

Counties.	Parishes.	Towns and Villages.	Acres.	Inhabitants.
Middlesex	8	15	1,305,235	23,000 Whites. 300,000 Negroes.
Surry	7	12	672,616	
Cornwall	5	10	1,512,149	
Total Three	20	37	3,500,000	323,000

This island is intersected with a ridge of steep rocks, tumbling, by the frequent earthquakes, in a stupendous manner upon one another. From the rocks issue a vast number of small rivers of pure wholesome water, which fall down in cataracts, and, together with the stupendous height of the mountains, and the bright verdure of the trees through which they flow, form a most delightful landscape. On each side of this chain of mountains are ridges of lower ones, which diminish as they remove from it. On these, coffee grows in great plenty. The vallies and plains between these ridges are level, and the soil is prodigiously fertile.

* If the reader is desirous of the fullest information concerning such part of the West India islands as belong to Great Britain, he is referred to the very extensive and valuable history of those islands, by Bryan Edwards, Esq. published in 1793, by Mr. Stockdale.

The longest day in summer is about thirteen hours, and the shortest in winter about eleven; but the most usual divisions of the seasons in the West Indies are into the dry and wet seasons. The air of this island is in most places excessively hot, and unfavourable to European constitutions; but the cool sea breezes, which set in every morning at ten o'clock, render the heat more tolerable; and the air upon the high grounds is temperate, pure, and cooling. It lightens almost every night, but without much thunder, which when it happens is terrible, and roars with astonishing loudness; and the lightning in these violent storms frequently does great damage. In February or March, they expect earthquakes. During the months of May and October, the rains are extremely violent, and continue sometimes for a fortnight together.—In the plains are found several salt fountains; and in the mountains, not far from Spanish Town, is a hot bath, of great medicinal virtues: it gives relief in the dry belly-ach, which, excepting the bilious and yellow fever, is one of the most terrible endemial distempers of Jamaica.

Sugar is the greatest and most valuable production of this island. In 1787, 824,706 cwt. of this article was exported to Great Britain; and in 1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Cocoa was formerly cultivated in it to great extent. It produces also ginger and the pimento, or, as it is called, Jamaica pepper, and vulgarly allspice; the wild cinnamon tree, whose bark is so useful in medicine; the mace, whose fruit, though uncommonly delightful to the eye, contains one of the worst poisons in nature; the mahogany, and of the most valuable quality; but this wood begins to be scarce, and of late is very dear. Excellent cedars, of a large size and durable; the cabbage tree, remarkable for the hardness of its wood, which, when dry, is incorruptible, and hardly yields to any kind of tool; the palma, affording oil, much esteemed by the savages, both in food and medicine; the soap tree, whose berries answer all purposes of washing; the mangrove and olive bark, useful to tanners; the fustic and redwood to the dyers; and lately the logwood. The indigo plant was formerly much cultivated, and the cotton tree is still so. They have maize, or Indian corn, Guinea corn, peas of various kinds, with a variety of roots. Fruits grow in great plenty; citrons, Seville and China oranges, common and sweet lemons, limes, shadocks, pomegranates, mamees, four-fops, papas, pine apples, prickly pears, allicada pears, melons, pompions, guavas, and several kinds of berries; also garden stuffs in great plenty, and good. The cattle bred on this island are but few; their beef is tough and lean; the mutton and lamb are tolerable; they have plenty of hogs; many plantations have hundreds of them, and their flesh is exceedingly sweet and delicate. Their horses are small, mettlesome and hardy, and when well made generally sell for thirty or forty pounds sterling. Jamaica likewise supplies the apothecary with guaiacum, sarsaparilla, china, cassia, and tamarinds. Among the animals are the land and sea turtle, and the alligator. Here are all sorts of fowl, wild and tame, parrots, parroquets, pelicans, snipes, teal, Guinea hens, geese, ducks, and turkies, the humming bird, and a great variety of others. The rivers and bays abound with fish. The mountains breed numberless adders, and other noxious animals, as the fens and marshes do the guana and gallewas; but these last are not venomous. Among the insects are the ciror, or chegoe, which eat into the nervous and membranous parts of the flesh of the negroes, and the white people are sometimes plagued with them. These insects get into any parts of the body, but chiefly the legs and feet, where they breed in great numbers, and shut themselves up in a bag; as soon as the person feels them, which is not perhaps till a week after they have been in the body, they pick them out with a needle or the point of a penknife, taking

taking care to destroy the bag entirely, that none of the breed, which are like nits, may be left behind. They sometimes get into the toes and eat the flesh to the very bone.

Port Royal was formerly the capital of Jamaica. It stood upon the point of a narrow neck of land, which, towards the sea, formed part of the border of a very fine harbour of its own name. The convenience of this harbour, which was capable of containing a thousand sail of large ships, and of such depth as to allow them to load and unload with the greatest ease, weighed so much with the inhabitants, that they chose to build their capital on this spot, though the place was a hot dry sand, and produced none of the necessaries of life, not even fresh water. But the advantage of its harbour, and the resort of pirates, made it a place of great consideration. These pirates were called Buccaneers; they fought with a desperate bravery, and then spent their fortune in this capital with as inconsiderate dissipation. About the year 1692, no place for its size could be compared to this town for trade, wealth, and an entire corruption of manners. In the month of June, in this year, an earthquake, which shook the whole island to its foundations, totally overwhelmed this city, so as to leave in one quarter, not even the smallest vestige remaining. In two minutes the earth opened and swallowed up nine tenths of the houses, and two thousand people. The water gushed out from the openings of the earth, and tumbled the people on heaps; but some of them had the good fortune to catch the beams and rafters of houses, and were afterwards saved by boats. Several ships were cast away in the harbour; and the Swan frigate, which lay in the dock to careen, was carried over the tops of sinking houses, and did not overset, but afforded a retreat to some hundreds of people, who saved their lives upon her. An officer who was in the town at this time, says, the earth opened and shut very quick in some places, and he saw several people sink down to the middle, and others appeared with their heads just above ground and were squeezed to death. At Savannah, above a thousand acres were sunk, with the houses and people in them; the place appeared for some time like a lake, was afterwards dried up, but no houses were seen. In some parts mountains were split; and at one place a plantation was removed to the distance of a mile. They again rebuilt the city; but it was a second time, ten years after, destroyed by a great fire. The extraordinary convenience of the harbour tempted them to build it once more; and once more, in 1782, was it laid in rubbish by a hurricane the most terrible on record. Such repeated calamities seemed to mark out this place as a devoted spot; the inhabitants therefore resolved to forsake it for ever, and to reside at the opposite bay, where they built Kingston, which is now the capital of this island. It consists of upwards of one thousand houses, many of them handsomely built, and in the taste of these islands, as well as the neighbouring continent, one story high, with porticoes, and every convenience for a comfortable habitation in that climate. Not far from Kingston stands St. Jago de le Vega, or Spanish Town, which, though at present inferior to Kingston, was once the capital of Jamaica, and is still the seat of government, and the place where the courts of justice are held.

On the 3d of October, 1780, was a dreadful hurricane, which almost overwhelmed the little seaport town of Savannah le Mer, in Jamaica, and a part of the adjacent country. Very few houses were left standing, and a great number of people were killed. Much damage was also done, and many lives lost, in other parts of the island.

The whole product of the island may be reduced to these heads. First, sugars, of which they exported in 1787, 824,706 cwt.—1788, 1,124,017 cwt.—1789, 1,236,603 cwt.

cwt.—1790, 1,185,519 cwt. Most of this goes to London, Bristol, and Glasgow, and some part of it into the United States, in return for the beef, pork, cheese, corn, peas, slaves, planks, pitch and tar, which they have from thence. Second, rum, of which they export about 4000 puncheons annually. The rum of this island is generally esteemed the best, and is the most used in Great Britain. Third, molasses, in which they formerly made their remittances for the produce of the grand staple the sugar cane. According to the late testimony of a respectable planter in Jamaica, that island hath 280,000 acres in canes, of which 210,000 are annually cut, and make from 68 to 70,000 tons of sugar, and 4,200,000 gallons of rum. Fourth, cotton, of which they send out two thousand bags. The indigo, formerly much cultivated, is now inconsiderable; but some cocoa and coffee are exported, with a considerable quantity of pepper, ginger, drugs for dyers and apothecaries, sweetmeats, mahogany and machine-planks. But some of the most considerable articles of their trade are with the Spanish continent of New Spain and Terra Firma; for in the former they cut great quantities of logwood, and both in the former and latter they carry on a vast and profitable trade in negroes and all kinds of European goods.

This island was originally a part of the Spanish empire in America. Several descents had been made upon it by the English, prior to 1656; but it was not till this year that Jamaica was reduced under the British dominion. Cromwell had fitted out a squadron, under Penn and Venables, to reduce the Spanish island of Hispaniola, but there this squadron was unsuccessful. The commanders, of their own accord, to atone for this misfortune, made a descent on Jamaica, and having carried the capital, St. Jago, soon compelled the whole island to surrender. Ever since it has been subject to the English, and the government of it is one of the richest places, next to that of Ireland, in the disposal of the crown, the standing salary being 2,500*l.* per annum, and the assembly commonly voting the governor as much more; which, with the other perquisites, make it on the whole little inferior to 10,000*l.* per annum.

BARBADOES.

This island, the most easterly of all the Caribbees, is situated in 59 degrees West longitude, and 13 degrees North latitude. It is twenty-one miles in length, and fourteen in breadth. When the English, some time after the year 1625, first landed here, it had not the least appearance of ever having been peopled even by savages. There was no kind of beasts, no fruit, no herb nor root, fit for supporting the life of man; yet, as the climate was so good, and the soil appeared fertile, some gentlemen of small fortunes in England resolved to become adventurers thither. The trees were so large, and of a wood so hard and stubborn, that it was with great difficulty they could clear as much ground as was necessary for their subsistence. By unremitting perseverance, however, they brought it to yield them a tolerable support; and they found that cotton and indigo agreed well with the soil, and that tobacco, which was beginning to come into repute in England, answered tolerably well. These prospects, together with the storm between the king and parliament, which was beginning to break out in England, induced many new adventurers to transport themselves to this island. And what is remarkable, twenty-five years after its first settlement, in 1650, it contained more than 50,000 whites, and a much greater number of negro and Indian slaves; the latter they acquired by means not at all to their honour; for they seized upon all those unhappy men, without any pretence, in the neighbouring islands, and carried them into slavery; a practice, which has rendered the Caribbee Indians irreconcilable

conciliable to the English ever since. They had begun, a little before this, to cultivate sugar to great advantage. The number of slaves was, in consequence of their wealth, still augmented; and in 1676, it is supposed that their number amounted to 100,000, which, together with 50,000 whites, make 150,000 on this small spot, a degree of population unknown in Holland, in China, or any other part of the world most renowned for numbers.

At this time Barbadoes employed 400 sail of ships, one with another of 150 tons, in their trade. Their annual exports in sugar, indigo, ginger, cotton, and citron water, were about 350,000*l.* and their circulating cash at home was 200,000*l.* Such was the increase of population, trade, and wealth, in the course of fifty years. But since that time, this island has been much on the decline, which is to be attributed partly to the growth of the French sugar colonies, and partly to the other English establishments in the neighbouring isles. Their numbers at present are said to be 20,000 whites, and 100,000 slaves. Their commerce consists in the same articles as formerly, though they deal in them to less extent. In 1787 they exported to Great Britain upwards of 130,000 cwt. of sugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000 cwt. Their capital is Bridgetown, where the governor resides, whose employment is said to be worth 5000*l.* per annum. They have a college, founded and well endowed by Colonel Codrington, who was a native of this island. Barbadoes, as well as Jamaica, has suffered much by hurricanes, fire, and the plague. On the 10th of October, 1780, a dreadful hurricane occasioned vast devastation in Barbadoes, great numbers of the houses were destroyed, not one house in the island was wholly free from damage, many persons were buried in the ruins of the buildings, and great numbers were driven into the sea, and there perished.

ST. CHRISTOPHER'S.

This island, commonly called by the sailors St. Kitt's, is situated in 62 degrees West longitude, and 17 degrees North latitude, about fourteen leagues from Antigua, and is twenty miles long, and seven broad. It has its name from the famous Christopher Columbus, who discovered it for the Spaniards. That nation, however, abandoned it, as unworthy of their attention; and, in 1626, it was settled by the French and English conjointly; but entirely ceded to the latter by the peace of Utrecht. Besides cotton, ginger, and the tropical fruits, it produced, in 1787, 231,397 cwt. of sugar, and in 1790, but about 113,000 cwt. It is computed that this island contains 6000 whites and 36,000 negroes. In February, 1782, it was taken by the French, but restored to England by the treaty of 1783.

ANTIGUA.

Situated in 61 degrees West longitude, and 17 degrees North latitude, is of a circular form, near twenty miles over every way. This island, which was formerly thought useless, has now got the start of the rest. It has one of the best harbours in the West Indies; and its capital St. John's, which, before the fire in 1769, was large and wealthy, is the ordinary seat of the governor of the Leeward islands. Antigua is supposed to contain about 7000 whites, and 30,000 slaves. In 1787, 254,706 cwt. of sugar was sent from this island to Great Britain, and in 1790, only 65,022 cwt.

GRENADA

GRENADA AND THE GRENADINES.

Grenada is situated in 12° North lat. and 62° West lon. about thirty leagues S.W. of Barbadoes, and almost the same distance north of Andalusia, or the Spanish Main. This island is said to be thirty miles in length, and fifteen in breadth. Experience has proved, that the soil of this island is extremely proper for producing sugar, coffee, tobacco, and indigo; and upon the whole it carries with it all the appearance of becoming as flourishing a colony as any in the West Indies, of its dimensions. A lake on the top of a hill, in the middle of the island, supplies it plentifully with fine rivers, which adorn and fertilize it. Several bays and harbours lie round the island, some of which may be fortified with great advantage, which render it very convenient for shipping; and has the happiness of not being subject to hurricanes. St. George's Bay has a sandy bottom, and is capacious, but open. In its harbour, or careening place, 100 large vessels may be moored with perfect safety. This island was long the theatre of bloody wars between the native Indians and the French, during which these handful of Caribbees defended themselves with the most resolute bravery. In the last war but one, when Grenada was attacked by the English, the French inhabitants, who were not very numerous, were so amazed at the reduction of Guadalupe and Martinico, that they lost all spirit, and surrendered without making the least opposition; and the full property of this island, together with the small islands on the north, called the Grenadines, which yield the same produce, were confirmed to the crown of Great Britain by the treaty of Paris in 1763. But in July 1779, the French made themselves masters of this island, though it was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. In 1787, 172,880 cwt. of sugar was exported from these islands to Great Britain, and in 1790, 191,625 cwt.

DOMINICA,

Situated in 16° N. lat. and in 62° W. lon. lies about half way between Guadalupe and Martinico. It is near twenty-eight miles in length, and thirteen in breadth; it obtained its name from being discovered by Columbus on a Sunday. The soil of this island is thin, and better adapted to the rearing of cotton than sugar; but the sides of the hills bear the finest trees in the West Indies, and the island is well supplied with rivulets of good water. By the peace of Paris, in 1763, it was ceded to the English; but they have derived little advantage from this conquest, the island being, till lately, no better than a harbour for the natives of the other Caribbees, who being expelled their own settlements, have taken refuge here. But, on account of its situation between the principal French islands, and Prince Rupert's Bay being one of the most capacious in the West Indies, it has been judged expedient to form Dominica into a government of itself, and to declare it a free port. It was taken by the French in 1778; but it was restored again to Great Britain by the late peace. It exported to Great Britain, in 1790, upwards of 50,000 cwt. of sugar, and considerably more in 1787.

ST. VINCENT.

Situated in 13° N. lat. and 61° W. long. 50 miles north-west of Barbadoes, 30 miles south of St. Lucia, is about 24 miles in length, and 13 in breadth. It is very fruitful, being a black mould upon a strong loam, the most proper for the raising of sugar. Indigo thrives here remarkably well; but this article is less cultivated than

than formerly throughout the West Indies. Many of the inhabitants are Caribbeans, and many here also fugitive, from Barbadoes and the other islands.

The Caribbeans were treated with so much injustice and barbarity, after this island came into possession of the English, to whom it was ceded by the peace in 1763, that they greatly contributed towards enabling the French to get possession of it again in 1779; but it was restored to Great Britain by the late treaty of peace. It sent to Great Britain in 1790, 76,747 cwt. of sugar.

NEVIS AND MONTSERRAT.

Two small islands lying between St. Christopher's and Antigua, neither of them exceeding 18 miles in circumference, and are said to contain 5000 whites, and 10,000 slaves. The soil in these four islands is pretty much alike, light and sandy, but notwithstanding fertile in an high degree; and their principal exports are derived from the sugar cane. Both these islands were taken by the French in 1782, but were restored at the peace. They sent to Great Britain, in 1787, 108,324 cwt. of sugar, but much less in 1790.

BARBUDA.

Situated $17^{\circ} 49'$ N. lat. $61^{\circ} 50'$ W. long. 35 miles north of Antigua, is 20 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It is fertile, and has a good road for shipping, but no direct trade with England. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in husbandry, and raising fresh provisions for the use of the neighbouring isles. It belongs to the Codrington family, and the inhabitants amount to about 1500.

ANGUILLA.

Situated in 18° N. lat. 60 miles N. W. of St. Christopher's, is about 50 miles long, and 10 broad. This island is perfectly level, and the climate nearly the same with that of Jamaica. The inhabitants, who are not numerous, apply themselves to husbandry and feeding of cattle.

BERMUDAS, OR SOMMERS' ISLANDS.

These received their first name from their being discovered by John Bermudas, a Spaniard; and were called Sommers' Islands from Sir George Sommers, who was shipwrecked on their rocks, in 1609, in his passage to Virginia. They are situated, at a vast distance from any continent, in 32° N. lat. and in 65° W. long. Their distance from the Madeiras is about 1200 leagues, and from Carolina 300. They are nearly in the form of a shepherd's crook; the main island is about 16 miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. The parish of St. George's is an island to the eastward of the main land, on which stands the town of St. George's, containing about 500 houses. Contiguous to this is the island of St. David's, which supplies the town with butter, milk, vegetables, poultry, and fresh meat. In the bosom of the crook lie a vast number of small islands, uninhabited. The island is rocky, and the ground hilly. In the main road a sulky may pass; and even there, in many places, with difficulty; but turn to the right or left, and it is passable only on horseback. The air is healthy; a continual spring prevails: cedars, mantled in green, always adorn the hills: the pasture ground is ever verdant; the gardens ever in bloom. Most of the productions of
the

the West Indies might be here cultivated. The houses are built of a soft stone, which is sawn like timber; when exposed to the weather, and washed with lime, it becomes hard. The houses are white as snow, which, beheld from an eminence, contrasted with the greenness of the cedars and pasture ground, and the multitude of islands, full in view, realize what the Poets have feigned concerning the Elysian fields. The inhabitants are numerous; the whole island is a continued village; no less, perhaps, than 15 or 20,000 are collected on this small spot. The blacks are twice as numerous as the whites. Happy for the country, were the colour unknown among them! The Bermudians are chiefly seafaring people; few of the men are ever at home; 3 or 400 go annually to Turk's Island to rake salt, which is carried to America for provisions, or sold to such as may call at Turk's Island, for cash. However industrious the men are abroad, at home they are indolent; much given, particularly of late, to gambling and luxury. The women are generally handsome and comely; they love their husbands, their children, and their dress. Dancing is their favourite amusement. The men must be equipped in taste when they appear in company, should they not have a dollar in the pound to pay their creditors; the women must array themselves like the belles of Paris, should they not have a morsel of bread to preserve their blooming complexion. They are thoroughly acquainted with one another's families, and from their tea tables, as from their atmosphere, arises constant gusts of scandal and detraction. To strangers they are kind, but among themselves are quarrelsome: their friendly intercourse is too much confined within a narrow circle, bounded by cousins or second cousins.

The common food of the Bermudians is coffee, fish of different kinds, a sweet potatoe, Indian corn, and American flour. Their water is rain preserved in cisterns; the general drink is grog. The men are amphibious animals; from their being a yard long they swim out of their depth, and fishing is their favourite amusement when grown up. The government is conducted under a governor named by the crown of England, a council, and general assembly. The established religion is Episcopacy. There are nine churches; three clergymen have the charge of these nine: there is one Presbyterian church. A regard for religion is not the characteristic of the Bermudians; they seldom go to church, except it be to attend a funeral, or get their children baptized, or to hear a stranger.*

LUCA Y's, or BAHAMA ISLANDS.

The Bahamas are situated between 22 and 27 degrees North latitude, and 73 and 81 degrees West longitude. They extend along the coast of Florida quite down to Cuba, and are said to be 500 in number, some of them only rocks, but twelve of them are large and fertile; all are, however, uninhabited, except Providence, which is 200 miles east of the Floridas; though some others are larger and more fertile, on which the English have plantations.

These islands were the first fruits of Columbus's discoveries; but they were not known to the English till 1667. The Isle of Providence became an harbour for the buccaneers, or pirates, who for a long time infested the American navigation. This obliged the government, in 1718, to send out Captain Woodes Rogers with a fleet to dislodge the pirates, and for making a settlement. This the captain effected; a fort was erected, and an independent company was stationed in the island. Ever since this

* The foregoing description of these islands was sent the author by an intelligent gentleman who had resided a number of years in Bermuda.

last settlement, these islands have been improving, though they advance but slowly. In time of war, people gain considerably by the prizes condemned there; and at all times by the wrecks, which are frequent in this labyrinth of rocks and shelves. The Spaniards and Americans captured these islands during the last war, but they were retaken by a detachment from St. Augustine, April 7th, 1783.

FALKLAND ISLANDS.

Though these are not among the West India Islands, we shall mention them in this place. They lie in the 52d degree of south latitude, near the Straits of Magellan, at the utmost extremity of South America.

Falkland Islands were first discovered by Sir Richard Hawkins in 1594, the principal of which he named Hawkins' Maidenland, in honour of Queen Elizabeth. The present English name Falkland was probably given them by Captain Strong, in 1689, and, being adopted by Halley, it has from that time been received into maps. Captain M'Bride, who visited them in 1766, thus describes them: "We found," says he, "a mass of islands and broken lands, of which the soil was nothing but a bog, with no better prospect than that of barren mountains, beaten by storms almost perpetual. Yet this is summer; and if the winds of winter hold their natural proportion, those who lie but two cables length from the shore, must pass weeks without any communication with it." The plants and vegetables which were planted by Mr. Byron's people, and the fir trees, a native of rugged and cold climates, had withered away; but goats, sheep, and hogs, that were carried thither, were found to thrive and increase as in other places. Geese, of a fishy taste, snipes, foxes, sea lions, penguins, plenty of good water, and, in the summer months, wild celery and sorrel, are the natural luxuries of these islands. But though the soil be barren, and the sea tempestuous, an English settlement was made here, of which they were dispossessed by the Spaniards in 1770.

SPANISH WEST INDIES.

C U B A.

THE island of Cuba is situated between 19° and 23° N. lat. and between 74° and 87° W. long. 100 miles to the south of Cape Florida, and 75 miles north of Jamaica, and is nearly 700 miles in length, and generally about 70 miles in breadth. A chain of hills runs through the middle of the island from east to west; but the land near the sea is in general level and flooded in the rainy season, when the sun is vertical. This noble island is supposed to have the best soil, for so large a country, of any in America: it produces all the commodities known in the West Indies, particularly ginger, long pepper, and other spices, cassia, fistula, mastich, and aloes. It also produces tobacco and sugar; but from the want of hands, and the laziness of the Spaniards, not in such quantities as might be expected. It is owing to the same cause

that this large island does not produce, including all its commodities, so much for exportation as the small island of Antigua.

The course of the rivers is too short to be of any consequence to navigation; but there are several good harbours in the island, which belong to the principal towns, as that of St. Jago, facing Jamaica, strongly situated and well fortified, but neither populous nor rich. That of the Havannah, facing Florida, which is the capital of Cuba, and a place of great strength and importance, containing about 2000 houses, with a great number of churches and convents. It was taken, however, by the English in the year 1762, but restored in the subsequent treaty of peace. Besides these, there is also Cumberland harbour, and that of Santa Cruz, a considerable town thirty miles east of the Havannah.

HISPANIOLA, OR ST. DOMINGO.

This island was at first possessed by the Spaniards alone; but by far the most considerable part is now in the hands of the French; however, as the Spaniards were the original possessors, and still continue to have a share in it, Hispaniola is commonly regarded as a Spanish island.

It is situated between the 17th and 21st degrees N. lat. and the 67th and 74th of W. long. lying in the middle between Cuba and Porto Rico, and is 450 miles long, and 150 broad. When Hispaniola was first discovered by Columbus, the number of its inhabitants was computed to be at least one million. But such was the cruelty of the Spaniards, and to so infamous a height did they carry their oppression of the poor natives, that they were reduced to sixty thousand in the space of fifteen years. The face of the island presents an agreeable variety of hills, vallies, woods, and rivers; and the soil is allowed to be extremely fertile, producing sugar, cotton, indigo, tobacco, maize, and cassava root. The European cattle are so multiplied here, that they run wild in the woods, and, as in South America, are hunted for their hides and tallow only. In the most barren parts of the rocks, they discovered formerly silver and gold. The mines, however, are not worked now. The north-west parts, which are in the possession of the French, consist of large fruitful plains, which produce the articles already mentioned in vast abundance. This indeed is the best and most fruitful part of the best and most fertile island in the West Indies, and perhaps in the world.

The most ancient town in this island, and in all America, built by Europeans, is St. Domingo. It was founded by Bartholomew Columbus, brother to the admiral, in 1504, who gave it that name in honour of his father Dominic, and by which the whole island is sometimes named. It is situated on a spacious harbour, and is a large well-built city, inhabited, like the other Spanish towns, by a mixture of Europeans, Creoles, Mestizos, and Negroes.

The French towns are Cape François, the capital, containing, several years ago, about 8000 white and blacks. Leogane, though inferior in point of size, is a good port, a place of considerable trade, and the seat of the French government in that island. They have two other towns, considerable for their trade, Petit Guaves, and Port Louis.

The following is said to be an exact statement of the product, population, and commerce of the French colony of Hispaniola, in the year 1788, and may serve to shew the immense losses sustained by the late insurrection of the negroes.

POPULATION.] White people 27,717; viz. 9,699 men; 2,401 males above 12 years old; 2,296 under 12 years; 1,269 husbandmen of plantations; 1,832 plantation managers;

nagers; 325 sugar refiners; 308 physicians; 510 mechanics; 614 clerks; two white servants; 8,511 women and girls.

Free people of colour 21,808; of which 3,493 were men; 2,892 males above 12 years; 2,892 under 12; 2,700 servants; 9,833 women or girls; slaves 405,528.

PLANTATIONS AND MANUFACTORIES.] Sugar 792; indigo 3,097; cotton 705; coffee 2,810; distilleries 173; brick and potter's ware 63; cocoa 69; tanners 3.

PRODUCTIONS EXPORTED TO FRANCE.

70,227,709 pounds of White-Sugar,	930,016 pounds of Indigo,
93,177,518 ditto Brut ditto,	6,286,126 ditto Cotton,
68,151,181 ditto Coffee,	12,995 Dressed Skins.

SOLD TO AMERICAN, ENGLISH, AND DUTCH SMUGGLERS.

25,000,000 pounds of Brut Sugars,	3,000,000 pounds of Cotton.
12,000,000 ditto Coffee,	

The molasses exported in American bottoms, valued at 1,000,000 dollars; precious wood, exported in French ships, 200,000 dollars.

TRADE.] Five hundred and eighty large ships, carrying 189,679 tons, in which the imports amounted to 12,000,000 dollars, of which more than 8,000,000 dollars were in manufactured goods of France, and the other 4,000,000 in French produce.

The Spanish ships exported in French goods or money 1,400,000 dollars, for mules imported by them into the colony.

Ninety-eight French ships, carrying 40,130 tons, imported 29,506 negroes; which fold for 8,000,000 dollars.

The negroes in the French division of this island have, for several years past, been in a state of insurrection. In the progress of these disturbances, which have not yet subsided, the planters and others have sustained immense losses. As this unhappy affair has engaged much of the attention of the public, we are happy in being able to give a summary statement of the causes of this insurrection.*

"The situation of the French colonies early attracted the attention of the Constituent Assembly. At this time all was as tranquil as such a state of oppression would permit. Political health can only be attributed to a country with a free constitution. The situation of the islands is that of a paralytic: one part is torpid, whilst the other is affected with the frantic motions of St. Vitus's Dance.

"The first interference of the National Assembly in the affairs of the colonies, was by a decree of the 8th of March, 1790, which declared, "That all free persons, who were proprietors and residents of two years standing, and who contributed to the exigencies of the State, should exercise the rights of voting, which constitute the quality of French citizens."

This decree, though in fact it gave no new rights to the people of colour, was regarded with a jealous eye by the white planters, who evidently saw that the generality of the qualification included all descriptions of proprietors; they affected, however, to impose a different construction upon it. The people of colour appealed to common justice and common sense; it was to no purpose; the whites repelled them from their assemblies: some commotions ensued, in which they mutually fell a sacrifice to their pride and resentment.

* From a pamphlet published in 1792, intitled, "An Inquiry into the Causes of the Insurrection of the Negroes in the Island of St. Domingo."

These disturbances again excited the vigilance of the National Assembly: a decree was passed on the 12th day of October, 1790, by which the Assembly declared, as a constitutional article, "That they would establish no regulations respecting the internal government of the colonies, without the precise and formal request of the Colonial Assemblies."

Peace, however, was not the consequence of this decree. The proprietors, it is true, had obtained a legal right of tyrannizing; but the unfortunate question still recurred, Who should be permitted to exercise that right? On this head the decree was silent. New dissensions arose; each of the parties covered, under a factious patriotism, the most atrocious designs. Assassination and revolt became frequent. Mauduit, a French officer of rank, lost his life by the hands of his own countrymen. The unfortunate Oge, a planter of colour, who had exerted himself in France in the cause of his brethren, resolved to support by force their just pretensions. He landed in the Spanish territory of St. Domingo, where he assembled about 600 mulattoes. Before he proceeded to hostilities, he wrote to the French general, that his desire was for peace, provided the laws were enforced. His letter was absurdly considered as a declaration of war. Being attacked and vanquished, he took refuge amongst the Spaniards, who delivered him up to his adversaries. The horrors of his death were the harbingers of future crimes. These disturbances still increasing, the National Assembly found it necessary, at length, to decide between the contending parties.

On the 15th of May, 1791, a decree was made, consisting of two articles, by the first of which the Assembly confirmed that of the 12th of October, so far as respected the slaves in their islands. It is true, that the word slave was cautiously omitted in this document, and they are only characterized by the negative description of "men not free," as if right and wrong depended on a play of words, or a mode of expression.

This part of the decree met with but little opposition, though it passed not without severe reprehension from a few enlightened members. The second article, respecting the people of colour, was strongly contested: those who were before known by the appellation of patriots divided upon it. It was, however, determined in the result, that the people of colour, born of free parents, should be considered as active citizens, and be eligible to the offices of government in the islands.

This second article, which decided upon a right that the people of colour had been entitled to for upwards of a century, instead of restoring peace, may be considered as the cause, or rather the pretext, of all the subsequent evils that the colony of St. Domingo has sustained. They arose not indeed from its execution, but from its counteraction by the white colonists. Had they, after the awful warnings they had already experienced, obeyed the ordinances of an Assembly they pretended to revere; had they imbibed one drop of the true spirit of that constitution to which they had vowed an inviolable attachment; had they even suppressed the dictates of pride in the suggestions of prudence; the storm that threatened them had been averted, and in their obedience to the parent State they had displayed an act of patriotism, and preserved themselves from all possibility of danger.

But the equalization of the people of colour stung the irritable nerves of the white colonists. The descendants of slaves might have lost the resentments of their fathers; but the hatred of a despot is hereditary. The European maxim allows, "That they never pardon who have done the wrong;" but in the colonies this perversity attains a more monstrous growth, and the aversion to African blood descends from generation to generation. No sooner had the decree passed, than deputies from the islands to the National Assembly withdrew their attendance: the colonial committee, always under

the influence of the planters, suspended their labours. Its arrival in the island struck the whites with consternation: they vowed to sacrifice their lives rather than suffer the execution of the decree. Their rage bordered upon phrenzy: they proposed to imprison the French merchants then in the island, to tear down the National flag, and hoist the British standard in its place. Whilst the joy of the mulattoes was mingled with apprehensions and with fears, St. Domingo re-echoed with the cries of the whites, with their menaces, with their blasphemies against the constitution. A motion was made in the streets to fire upon the people of colour, who fled from the city, and took refuge in the plantations of their friends and in the woods: they were at length recalled by a proclamation; but it was only to swear subordination to the whites, and to be witnesses of fresh enormities. Amidst these agitations the slaves had remained in their accustomed subordination. Nor was it till the month of August, 1791, that the symptoms of the insurrection appeared amongst them.

A considerable number, both of whites and people of colour, had lost their lives in these commotions before the slaves had given indications of disaffection; they were not, however, insensible of the opportunities of revolt afforded by the dissensions of their masters: they had learnt that no alleviation of their miseries was ever to be expected from Europe; that in the struggle for colonial dominion, their humble interests had been equally sacrificed or forgotten by all parties. They felt their curb relaxed by the disarming and dispersion of their mulatto masters, who had been accustomed to keep them under rigorous discipline. Hopeless of relief from any quarter, they rose in different parts, and spread desolation over the island. If the cold cruelties of despotism have no bounds, what shall be expected from the paroxysms of despair?

On the 11th of September, 1791, a convention took place, which produced the agreement called the Concordat, by which the white planters stipulated, that they would no longer oppose the law of the 15th of May, which gave political rights to the people of colour. The Colonial Assembly even promised to meliorate the situation of the people of colour, born of parents not free, and to whom the decree of the 15th of May did not extend. An union was formed between the planters, which, if it had sooner taken place, had prevented the insurrection. The insurgents were every where dispirited, repulsed, and dispersed; and the colony itself preserved from total destruction.

By a decree of the National Assembly, the 24th of September, the people of colour were virtually excluded from all right of colonial legislation, and expressly placed in the power of the white colonists.

If the decree of the 15th of May could instigate the white colonists to the frantic acts of violence before described, what shall we suppose were the feelings of the people of colour on that of the 24th of September, which again blasted those hopes they had justly founded on the constitutional law of the parent state, and the solemn ratification of the white colonists? No sooner was it known in the islands, than those dissensions which the revolt of the negroes had for a while appeased, broke out with fresh violence. The apprehensions entertained from the slaves had been allayed by the effects of the Concordat; but the whites no sooner found themselves relieved from the terrors of immediate destruction, than they availed themselves of the decree of the 24th of September; they formally revoked the Concordat, and treacherously refused to comply with an engagement to which they owed their very existence. The people of colour were in arms; they attacked the whites in the southern provinces; they possessed themselves of Fort St. Louis, and defeated their opponents in several engagements. A powerful body surrounded Port au Prince, the capital of the island, and claimed the execution of the

Concor.

Concordat. At three different times did the whites assent to the requisition, and as often broke their engagement. Gratified with the predilection for aristocracy, which the Constituent Assembly had in its dotage avowed, they affected the appellation of patriots, and had the address to transfer the popular odium to the people of colour, who were contending for their indisputable rights, and to the few white colonists who had virtue enough to espouse their cause. Under this pretext, the municipality of Port au Prince required M. Grimoard, the captain of the *Boreas*, a French line of battle ship, to bring his guns to bear upon, and to cannonade the people of colour assembled near the town: he at first refused, but the crew, deluded by the cry of patriotism, enforced his compliance. No sooner was this measure adopted, than the people of colour gave a loose to their indignation; they spread over the country, and set fire indiscriminately to all the plantations; the greatest part of the town of Port au Prince soon after shared the same fate. Nothing seemed to remain for the white inhabitants but to seek their safety in quitting the colony.

In the northern parts the people of colour adopted a more magnanimous and perhaps a more prudent conduct. "They begun," says Mr. Verniaud, "by offering their blood to the whites. We shall wait," said they, "till we have saved you, before we assert our own claims." They accordingly opposed themselves to the revolted negroes with unexampled courage: they endeavoured to soothe them by attending to their reasonable requisitions; and if the colony of St. Domingo be preserved to the French nation, it will be by the exertions of the people of colour.

After this recital of authentic and indisputable facts, it is not difficult to trace the causes of the insurrection. The effects of this dreadful insurrection we leave to be described by the professed historian.

PORTO RICO.

Situated between 64 and 67 degrees W. long. and in 18 degrees N. lat. lying between Hispaniola and St. Christopher's, is 100 miles long, and 40 broad. The soil is beautifully diversified with woods, vallies, and plains; and is very fertile, producing the same fruits as the other islands: it is well watered with springs and rivers; but the island is unhealthy in the rainy seasons. It was on account of the gold that the Spaniards settled here; but there is no longer any considerable quantity of this metal found in it.

Porto Rico, the capital town, stands in a little island on the north side, forming a capacious harbour, defended by forts and batteries, which render the town almost inaccessible. It was, however, taken by Sir Francis Drake, and afterwards by the Earl of Cumberland. It is better inhabited than most of the Spanish towns, because it is the center of the contraband trade carried on by the English and French with the King of Spain's subjects.

VIRGIN ISLANDS, situated at the east end of Porto Rico, are extremely small.

TRINIDAD.

Situated between 59 and 62 degrees W. long. and in 10 degrees N. lat. lies between the island Tobago and the Spanish Main, from which it is separated by the straits of Paria: it is about 90 miles long, and 60 broad, and is an unhealthy but fruitful spot, producing sugar, fine tobacco, indigo, ginger, a variety of fruit, and some cotton trees, and

and Indian corn. It was taken by Sir Walter Raleigh in 1595, and by the French in 1676, who plundered the island, and extorted money from the inhabitants.

MARGARETTA.

Situated in 64 degrees W. long. and 11—30 N. lat. separated from the northern coast of New Andalusia, in Terra Firma, by a strait of 24 miles, and is about 40 miles in length, and 24 in breadth; and being always verdant, affords a most agreeable prospect. The island abounds in pasture, maize, and fruit; but there is a scarcity of wood and water. There was once a pearl fishery on its coast.

There are many other small islands in these seas, to which the Spaniards have paid no attention. We shall therefore proceed round Cape Horn into the South Seas, where the first Spanish island of any importance is CHILOE, on the coast of Chili, which has a governor, and some harbours well fortified.

JUAN FERNANDES.

Lying in 83 degrees W. long. and 33 S. lat. 300 miles west of Chili. This island is uninhabited; but having some good harbours, it is found extremely convenient for the English cruisers to touch at and water. This island is famous for having given rise to the celebrated romance of Robinson Crusoe. It seems one Alexander Selkirk, a Scotchman, was left ashore in this solitary place by his captain, where he lived for some years, until he was discovered by Captain Woodes Rogers, in 1709; when taken up, he had almost forgotten his native language: he was dressed in goat's skins, and would drink nothing but water. During his abode in this island, he had killed 500 goats, which he caught by running them down; and he marked as many more on the ear, which he let go. Some of these were caught thirty years after by Lord Anson's people; their venerable aspect and majestic beards discovered strong symptoms of antiquity.

Selkirk, upon his return to England, was advised to publish an account of his life and adventures in his little kingdom. He is said to have put his papers into the hands of Daniel Defoe, to prepare them for publication; but that writer, by the help of those papers, and a lively fancy, transformed Alexander Selkirk into Robinson Crusoe, and returned Selkirk his papers again; so that the latter derived no advantage from them. They were probably too indigested for publication, and Defoe might derive little from them but those hints which might give rise to his own celebrated performance.*

FRENCH WEST INDIES.

THE French were among the last nations who made settlements in the West Indies; but they made ample amends by the vigour with which they pursued them, and by that chain of judicious and admirable measures which they used in drawing from

* A splendid Edition of Robinson Crusoe, with seventeen Copper Plates, and a very interesting account of the Life of Daniel Defoe; by George Chalmers, Esq. is published by Mr. Stockdale, in 2 vols. 8vo.

them every advantage that the nature of the climate would yield; and in the contending against the difficulties which it threw in their way.

We have already mentioned the French colony upon the Spanish island of Hispaniola, or St. Domingo, as the most important of all their foreign settlements. We shall next proceed to the islands of which the French have the sole possession, beginning with the large and important one of

MARTINICO,

Which is situated between 14 and 15 degrees of N. lat. and in 61 degrees W. long. lying about 40 degrees N. W. of Barbadoes, is about 60 miles in length and 30 in breadth. The inland part of it is hilly, from which are poured out upon every side, a number of agreeable and useful rivers, which adorn and enrich this island in a high degree. The produce of the soil is sugar, cotton, indigo, ginger, and such fruits as are found in the neighbouring islands: but sugar is here, as in all the West India islands, the principal commodity of which they export a considerable quantity annually. Martinico is the residence of the governor of the French islands in these seas. Its bays and harbours are numerous, safe, and commodious, and well fortified. In the year 1756 this island was added to the British empire, but it was given back at the treaty of peace.

GUADALOUPE,

So called by Columbus, from the resemblance of its mountains to those of that name in Spain, is situated in 16 degrees N. lat. and in 62 degrees W. long. about 30 leagues north of Martinico, and almost as many south of Antigua; being 45 miles long, and 38 broad. It is divided into two parts by a small arm of the sea, or rather a narrow channel, through which no ships can venture; but the inhabitants pass it in a ferry boat: its soil is equally fertile, and in the same productions with that of Martinico. This island is in a flourishing condition, and its exports of sugar almost incredible.

ST. LUCIA,

Situated in 14 degrees N. lat. and in 61 degrees W. long. 80 miles north-west of Barbadoes, is 23 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. It received its name from being discovered on the day dedicated to the virgin martyr St. Lucia. The English first settled on this island in 1637. From this time they met with various misfortunes from the natives and French; and at length it was agreed on between the latter and the English, that this island, together with Dominica and St. Vincent, should remain neutral. But the French, before the war of 1756 broke out, began to settle these islands; which, by the treaty of peace were yielded up to Great Britain, and this island to France. The soil of St. Lucia, in the vallies, is extremely rich: it produces excellent timber, and abounds with pleasant rivers and well situated harbours; and is now declared a free port under certain restrictions. The English made themselves masters of it in 1778; but it was restored again to the French in 1783.

TOBAGO.

This island is situated 11 degrees odd minutes, N. lat. 120 miles south of Barbadoes, and about the same distance from the Spanish Main. It is about 32 miles in length, and

and nine in breadth. The climate here is not so hot as might be expected so near the equator; and it is said that it lies out of the course of those hurricanes that have sometimes proved so fatal to the other West India islands. It has a fruitful soil, capable of producing sugar, and indeed every thing else that is raised in the West Indies, with the addition (if we may believe the Dutch) of the cinnamon, nutmeg, and gum copal. It is well watered with numerous springs; and its bays and rivers are so disposed, as to be very commodious for all kind of shipping. The value and importance of this island appears from the expensive and formidable armaments sent thither by European powers in support of their different claims. It seems to have been chiefly possessed by the Dutch, who defended their pretensions against both England and France with the most obstinate perseverance. By the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, it was declared neutral; though, by the treaty of peace in 1763, it was yielded up to Great Britain; but in June, 1781, it was taken by the French, and ceded to them by the treaty of 1783.

ST. BARTHOLOMEW, DESEADA, AND MARIGALANTE,

Are three small islands lying in the neighbourhood of Antigua and St. Christopher's, and are of no great consequence to the French, except in time of war, when they give shelter to an incredible number of privateers, which greatly annoy the British West India trade. St. Bartholomew is now to be considered as belonging to the crown of Sweden, being ceded to it by France, 1785.

DUTCH WEST INDIES.

ST. EUSTATIUS, OR EUSTATIA,

SITUATED in $17^{\circ} 29'$ N. lat. and $63^{\circ} 10'$ W. long. and three leagues north-west of St. Christopher's, is only a mountain, about 29 miles in compass, rising out of the sea, like a pyramid, and almost round. But, though so small and inconveniently laid out by nature, the industry of the Dutch have made it to turn to very good account; and it is said to contain 5000 whites, and 15,000 negroes. The sides of the mountains are laid out in very pretty settlements; but they have neither springs nor rivers. They raise here sugar and tobacco; and this island, as well as Curassou, is engaged in the Spanish contraband trade, for which, however, it is not so well situated; and it has drawn the same advantage from its constant neutrality. But when hostilities were commenced by Great Britain against Holland, Admiral Rodney was sent with a considerable land and sea force against St. Eustatius, which, being incapable of any defence, surrendered at discretion, on the 3d of February, 1781. The private property of the inhabitants was confiscated, with a degree of rigour very uncommon among civilized nations, and very inconsistent with the humanity and generosity by which the English nation used to be characterised. The reason assigned was, that the inhabitants of St. Eustatius had assisted the United States with naval and other

stores. But on the 27th of November, the same year, St. Eustatius was retaken by the French, under the command of the Marquis de Bouille, though their force consisted of only three frigates and some small craft, and about 300 men.

CURASSOU,

Situated in twelve degrees north latitude, nine or ten leagues from the continent of Terra Firma, is thirty miles long, and ten broad. It seems as if it were fated, that the ingenuity and patience of the Hollanders should every where, both in Europe and America, be employed in fighting against an unfriendly nature; for the island is not only barren, and dependent on the rains for its water, but the harbour is naturally one of the worst in America; yet the Dutch have entirely remedied that defect; they have upon this harbour one of the largest and by far the most elegant and cleanly towns in the West Indies. The public buildings are numerous and handsome; the private houses commodious; and the magazines large, convenient, and well filled. All kind of labour is here performed by engines; some of them so well contrived, that ships are at once lifted into the dock.

Though this island is naturally barren, the industry of the Dutch has brought it to produce a considerable quantity both of tobacco and sugar; it has, besides, good salt works, for the produce of which there is a brisk demand from the English islands, and the colonies on the continent. But what renders this island of most advantage to the Dutch, is the contraband trade which is carried on between the inhabitants and the Spaniards, and their harbour being the rendezvous to all nations in time of war.

The Dutch ships from Europe touch at this island for intelligence, or pilots, and then proceed to the Spanish coasts for trade, which they force with a strong hand, it being very difficult for the Spanish guarda costas to take these vessels; for they are not only stout ships, with a number of guns, but are manned with large crews of chosen seamen, deeply interested in the safety of the vessel and the success of the voyage. They have each a share in the cargo, of a value proportioned to the station of the owner, supplied by the merchants upon credit, and at prime cost. This animates them with an uncommon courage, and they fight bravely, because every man fights in defence of his own property. Besides this, there is a constant intercourse between this island and the Spanish continent.

Curassou has numerous warehouses, always full of the commodities of Europe and the East Indies. Here are all sorts of woollen and linen cloth, laces, silks, ribands, iron utensils, naval and military stores, brandy, the spices of the Moluccas, and the calicoes of India, white and painted. Hither the Dutch West India, which is also their African Company, annually bring three or four cargoes of slaves; and to this mart the Spaniards themselves come in small vessels, and carry off not only the best of the negroes, at a very high price, but great quantities of all the above sorts of goods; and the seller has this advantage, that the refuse of warehouses and mercers' shops, and every thing that is grown unfashionable and unsaleable in Europe, go off here extremely well; every thing being sufficiently recommended by its being European. The Spaniards pay in gold and silver, coined or in bars, cocoa, vanilla, jessuits bark, cochineal, and other valuable commodities.

The trade of Curassou, even in times of peace, is said to be annually worth to the Dutch no less than 500,000*l.* but in time of war the profit is still greater, for then it becomes the common emporium of the West Indies; it affords a retreat to ships of all nations, and at the same time refuses none of them arms and ammunition to destroy

one another. The intercourse with Spain being then interrupted, the Spanish colonies have scarcely any other market from whence they can be well supplied either with slaves or goods. The French come hither to buy the beef, pork, corn, flour, and lumber, which are brought from the continent of North America, or exported from Ireland; so that, whether in peace or in war, the trade of this island flourishes extremely.

The trade of all the Dutch American settlements was originally carried on by the West India Company alone; at present, such ships as go upon that trade, pay two and a half per cent. for their licences; the company, however, reserve to themselves the whole of what is carried on between Africa and the American islands.

The other islands, BONAIRE and ARUBA, are inconsiderable in themselves, and should be regarded as appendages to Curassou, for which they are chiefly employed in raising cattle and other provisions.

The island of SABA, situated at no great distance from St. Eustatius, is small and hardly deserves to be mentioned.

DANISH WEST INDIES.

ST. THOMAS.

AN inconsiderable member of the Caribbees, situated in 64 degrees West longitude, and 18 degrees North latitude, about 15 miles in circumference, and has a safe and commodious harbour.

ST. CROIX, or SANTA CRUZ,

Another small and unhealthy island, lying about five leagues east of St. Thomas, ten or twelve leagues in length, and three or four where it is broadest. These islands, so long as they remained in the hands of the Danish West India Company, were ill-managed, and of little consequence to the Danes; but that wise and benevolent prince, the late king of Denmark, bought up the company's stock, and laid the trade open; and since that time the island of St. Thomas, as well as this, has been so greatly improved, that it is said to produce upwards of 3000 hogsheads of sugar, of 1000 weight each, and other of the West India commodities in tolerable plenty. In time of war, privateers bring in their prizes here for sale; and a great many vessels trade from hence along the Spanish main, and return with money in specie or bars, and valuable merchandise. As for Santa Cruz, from a perfect desert a few years since, it is beginning to settle fast; several persons from the English islands, some of them of great wealth, have gone to settle there, and have received very great encouragement to do so.

These two nations, the Dutch and the Danes, hardly deserve to be mentioned among the proprietors of America; their possessions there are comparatively nothing. But,

notwithstanding they appear extremely worthy of the attention of these powers, as the share of the Dutch only is worth to them at least 600,000*l.* a year.

“There seems to be a remarkable providence,” says an ingenious and political writer, “in casting the parts, if I may use that expression, of the several European nations who act upon the stage of America. The Spaniard, proud, lazy, and magnificent, has an ample walk in which to expatiate, a soft climate to indulge his love of ease, and a profusion of gold and silver to procure him all those luxuries his pride demands, but which his laziness would refuse him.

“The Portuguese, naturally indigent at home, and enterprising rather than industrious abroad, has gold and diamonds as the Spaniard has, wants them as he does, but possesses them in a more useful though a less ostentatious manner:

“The English, of a reasoning disposition, thoughtful and cool, and men of business rather than of great industry, impatient of much fruitless labour, abhorrent of constraint, and lovers of a country life, have a lot which indeed produces neither gold nor silver; but they have a large tract of a fine continent;* a noble field for the exercise of agriculture, and sufficient to furnish their trade without laying them under any great difficulties. Intolerant as they are of the most useful restraints, their commerce flourishes from the freedom every man has of pursuing it according to his own ideas, and directing his life after his own fashion.

“The French, active, lively, enterprising, pliable, and politic; and though changing their pursuits, always pursuing the present object with eagerness, are, notwithstanding, tractable, and obedient to rules and laws, which bridle their dispositions, and wind and turn them to proper courses—These people have a country (when Canada was in their possession) where more is to be effected by managing the people than by cultivating the ground; where a peddling commerce, that requires constant motion, flourishes more than agriculture; or a regular traffic; where they have difficulties which keep them alert by struggling with them, and where their obedience to a wise government (meaning the excellent regulations respecting the French colonies in America) serves them for personal wisdom. In the islands, the whole is the work of their policy, and a right turn their government has taken.

“The Dutch have a rock or two, on which to display the miracles of frugality and diligence (which are their virtues) and on which they have exerted these virtues, and shewn those miracles.”

NEW DISCOVERIES.

OUR knowledge of the globe has been considerably augmented by the late discoveries of Russia, British, and American navigators, which have been numerous and important. Of these discoveries we have already given some account, page 98. To the account we have given, we add the following.

* These observations were made before the United States were separated from Great Britain, and by an Englishman &c.

NORTHERN ARCHIPELAGO.

This consists of several groups of islands, which are situated between the eastern coast of Kamtschatka, and the western coast of the continent of America.*

Some of these islands are only inhabited occasionally, and for some months in the year, and others are very thinly peopled; but others have a great number of inhabitants, who constantly reside in them. The inhabitants of these islands are, in general, of a short stature, with strong and robust limbs, but free and supple. They have lank black hair, and little beard; flattish faces, and fair skins. They are for the most part well made, and of strong constitutions, suitable to the boisterous climate of their isles.

The Fox Islands, one of the groups, are so called from the great number of black, grey, and red foxes, with which they abound. The dress of the inhabitants consists of a cap and a fur coat, which reaches down to the knee. Some of them wear common caps of a party-coloured bird skin, upon which they leave part of the wings and tail. On the fore part of their hunting and fishing caps, they place a small board like a screen, adorned with the jaw bones of sea bears, and ornamented with glass beads, which they receive in barter from the Russians. At their festivals and dancing parties they use a much more showy sort of caps. They feed upon the flesh of all sorts of sea animals, and generally eat it raw; but if at any time they choose to dress their victuals, they make use of a hollow stone; having placed the fish or flesh therein, they cover it with another, and close the interstices with lime or clay; they then lay it horizontally upon two stones, and light a fire under it. The provision intended for keeping is dried without salt in the open air. Their weapons consist of bows, arrows, and darts, and for defence they use wooden shields.

The most perfect equality reigns among these islanders. They have neither chiefs nor superiors, neither laws nor punishments. They live together in families, and societies of several families united, which form what they call a race, who, in case of an attack, or defence, mutually help and support each other. The inhabitants of the same island always pretend to be of the same race; and every person looks upon his island as a possession, the property of which is common to all the individuals of the same society. Feasts are very common among them, and more particularly when the inhabitants of one island are visited by those of the others. The men of the village meet their guests beating drums, and preceded by the women, who dance. At the conclusion of the dance, the hosts serve up their best provisions, and invite their guests to partake of the feast. They feed their children when very young with the coarsest flesh, and for the most part raw. If an infant cries, the mother immediately carries it to the sea-side, and, whether it be summer or winter, holds it naked in the water until it is quiet. This custom is so far from doing the children any harm, that it hardens them against the cold, and they accordingly go barefooted through the winter without the least inconvenience. They seldom heat their dwellings; but, when

* Mr. Coxe observes, that, "the first project for making discoveries in that tempestuous sea, which lies between Kamtschatka and America, was conceived and planned by Peter I." Voyages with that view were accordingly undertaken at the expense of the crown; but when it was discovered that the islands in that sea abounded with valuable furs, private merchants immediately engaged with ardour in similar expeditions; and within a period of ten years, more important discoveries were made by these individuals, at their own private cost, than had hitherto been effected by all the efforts of the crown. The investigation of useful knowledge has also been greatly encouraged by the present empress of Russia; and the most distant parts of her vast dominions, and other countries and islands, have been explored, at her expense, by persons of abilities and learning, in consequence of which several discoveries have been made.

they are desirous of warming themselves, they light a bundle of hay, and stand over it; or else they set fire to train oil, which they pour into a hollow stone. They have a good share of plain natural sense, but are rather slow of understanding. They seem cold and indifferent in most of their actions; but let an injury or even suspicion only rouse them from this phlegmatic state, and they become inflexible and furious, taking the most violent revenge, without any regard to the consequences. The least affliction prompts them to suicide; the apprehension of even an uncertain evil often leads them to despair; and they put an end to their days with great apparent insensibility.

THE PELEW ISLANDS.

The existence and situation of these islands were probably known to the Spaniards at a distant period; but from a report among the neighbouring islands, of their being inhabited by a savage race of cannibals, it appears that there had never been the least communication between them and any of the Europeans, till the Antelope Packet, (belonging to the East India Company) was wrecked on one of them, in August 1783. From the accounts given of these islands, by Captain Wilson, who commanded the packet, it appears that they are situated between the 5th and 9th degrees north latitude, and between 130 and 136 degrees of east longitude from Greenwich, and lie in a N. E. and S. W. direction; they are long but narrow, of a moderate height, and well covered with wood; the climate temperate and agreeable; the lands produce sugar cane, yams, cocoa nuts, plantains, bananas, oranges, and lemons; and the surrounding seas abound with the finest and greatest variety of fish.

The natives of these islands are a stout, well-made people, above the middle stature; their complexions are of a far deeper colour than what is understood by the Indian copper, but not black. The men go entirely naked, and the women wear only two small aprons, one behind and one before, made of the husks of the cocoa nut, dyed with different shades of yellow.

The government is monarchical, and the king is absolute, but his power is exercised more with the mildness of a father than a sovereign. In the language of Europeans, he is the fountain of honour. He occasionally creates his nobles, called Rupacks or Chiefs, and confers a single honour of knighthood, called the *Order of the Bone*, the members of which are distinguished by wearing a bone on their arm.

The idea of these islanders, as communicated in the published account of Captain Wilson, is that of a people who, though totally ignorant of the arts and sciences, and living in the simplest state of nature, yet possess all that genuine politeness, that delicacy and chastity of intercourse between the sexes, that respect for personal property, that subordination to government, and those habits of industry, which are so rarely united in the more civilized societies of modern times.

It appears that when the English were thrown on one of these islands, they were received by the natives with the greatest humanity and hospitality; and till their departure, experienced the utmost courtesy and attention. "They felt our people were distressed, and in consequence wished they should share whatever they had to give. It was not that worldly munificence, that bestows and spreads its favours with a distant eye to retribution; it was the pure emotion of native benevolence; it was the love of man to man; it was a scene that pictures human nature in triumphant colouring, and whilst their liberality gratified the sense, their virtue struck the heart!"

THE MARQUESAS ISLANDS

Are five in number, first discovered by Quiros, in 1595, and their situation better ascertained by Captain Cook, in 1774. St. Dominica is the largest, about 16 leagues in circuit. The inhabitants, their language, manners, and clothing, with the vegetable productions, are nearly the same as the Society Isles.

INGRAHAM'S ISLANDS.

These islands were discovered by Captain Joseph Ingraham, of Boston, commander of the Brigantine Hope, on the 19th of April, 1791. They lie N. N. W. from the Marquesas islands, from 35 to 50 leagues distant, and are *seven* in number, which Captain Ingraham named as follows, viz.

Names.	Lat. S.	Long. from Lon.	Circuit.
Washington,	8° 52'	140° 19'	These 5, except Federal Isl. which is smaller, are about 10 leagues in circuit.
Adams, -	9° 20'	140° 54'	
Lincoln, -	9° 24'	140° 54'	
Federal, -	8° 55'	140° 50'	
Franklin, -	8° 45'	140° 49'	
Hancock, -	8° 3'	141° 14'	6 or 7 leagues,
Knox, -	8° 5'	141° 18'	5 ditto.

Most, if not all these islands are inhabited, and appear generally to be diversified with hills and vallies, and to be well wooded, and very pleasant. The people resemble those of the Marquesas islands, as do their canoes, which are carved at each end. They appeared friendly.

OTAHEITE, OR KING GEORGE'S ISLAND.

This island was discovered by Captain Wallis, in the Dolphin, on the 19th of June, 1767. It is situated between the 17th degree 28 minutes, and the 17th degree 53 minutes south latitude, and between the 149th degree 11 minutes; and the 149th degree 39 minutes; west longitude. It consists of two peninsulas, of a somewhat circular form; joined by an isthmus, and is surrounded by a reef of coral rocks; which form several excellent bays and harbours; where there is room and depth of water for almost any number of the largest ships. The face of the country is very extraordinary, for a border of low land almost entirely surrounds each peninsula, and behind this border the land rises in ridges that run up into the middle of these divisions, and these form mountains that may be seen at sixty leagues distance. The soil, except upon the very tops of the ridges, is remarkably rich and fertile, watered by a great number of rivulets, and covered with fruit trees of various kinds, forming the most delightful groves. The border of low lands that lies between the ridges and the sea, is in very few places more than a mile and a half broad, and this, together with some of the vallies, are the only parts that are inhabited.

Some parts of the island of Otaheite are very populous; and Capt. Cook was of opinion that the number of inhabitants on the whole island amounted to 204,000, including women and children. They are of a clear olive complexion; the men are tall, strong, well limbed, and finely shaped; the women are of an inferior size, but handsome, and very amorous, and indeed generally somewhat licentious. Their clothing

ing consists of cloth or matting of different kinds; and the greatest part of the food eaten here is vegetable, as cocoa-nuts, bananas, bread fruit, plantains, and a great variety of other fruit.

They have no tools among them made of metal; and those they use are made of stone, or some kind of bones. The inhabitants of Otatheite are remarkable for their clearliness; for both men and women constantly wash their whole bodies in running water three times every day. Their language is soft and melodious, and abounds with vowels.

There were no tame animals on this island but hogs, dogs, and poultry; and the only wild animals are tropical birds, paroquets, pigeons, ducks, a few other birds, rats, and a very few serpents. The sea, however, supplies the inhabitants with a great variety of the most excellent fish, and by the kindness of the English and the Spaniards, they have now bulls and cows, sheep, goats, a horse and mare, geese, ducks, peacocks, and turkeys, and also cats.

The inhabitants of Otaheite believe in one Supreme Deity, but at the same time acknowledge a variety of subordinate deities: they offer up their prayers without the use of idols, and believe the existence of the soul in a separate state, where there are two situations, of different degrees of happiness. Among these people a subordination is established, which somewhat resembles the early state of the European nations, under the feudal system. If a general attack happens to be made on the island, every district is obliged to furnish its proportion of soldiers for the common defence. Their weapons are slings, which they use with great dexterity, and clubs of about six or seven feet long, and made of a hard heavy wood. They have a great number of boats, many of which are constructed for warlike operations. Otaheite is said to be able to send out 1720 war canoes, and 68,000 fighting men.

SOCIETY ISLANDS.

Of the several islands so called in honour of the Royal Society, which were discovered by Captain Cook, in the year 1769, the principal are, HUAHEINE, ULITEA, OTAHA, and BOLABOLA. Huaheine is about 31 leagues to the north-west of Otaheite, and its productions are the same. The inhabitants seem to be larger made and more stout than those of Otaheite. Mr. Banks measured one of the men, and found him to be six feet three inches and a half high; yet they are so indolent, that he could not persuade one of them to go up the hills with him; for they said, if they should attempt it, the fatigue would kill them. Ulitea is about seven or eight leagues to the south-westward of Huaheine, and is a much larger island, but appears neither so fertile nor so populous. Otaha is divided from Ulitea by a strait, that in the narrowest part is not above two miles broad. About four leagues to the north-west of Otaha lies Bolabola, which is surrounded by a reef of rocks, and several small islands, all which are no more than eight leagues in compass. To these islands, and those of Maura, which lie about 14 miles to the westward of Bolabola, containing six in all, Capt. Cook gave the name of Society Islands.

THE FRIENDLY ISLANDS.

These islands were so named by Capt. Cook, in the year 1773, on account of the friendship which appeared to subsist among the inhabitants, and from their courteous behaviour to strangers.

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The plantations on some of these islands are both more numerous and more extensive, and enclosed by fences, which running parallel to each other, form fine spacious public roads, which would appear beautiful in countries where rural conveniences have been carried to the greatest perfection. They are in general highly cultivated, and well stocked with the several roots and fruits which these islands produce; and Capt. Cook endeavoured to add to their number by planting Indian corn, and the seed of melons, pumpkins, and the like.

Eooa, when viewed from the ship at anchor, formed one of the most beautiful prospects in nature, and very different from the others of the Friendly Isles, which being low and perfectly level, exhibit nothing to the eye but the trees which cover them; whereas here, the land rising gently to a considerable height, presents us with an extensive prospect, where groves of trees are only interspersed at irregular distances, in beautiful disorder, and all the rest is covered with grass, except near the shores, where it is covered with fruit and other trees, amongst which are the habitations of the natives.

We are informed that the bulk of the people of these islands are satisfied with one wife, but the chiefs have commonly several women, though it appeared as if one only was looked on as a mistress of the family. Though female chastity was frail enough in some, it is highly probable that conjugal fidelity is seldom violated, as it does not appear that more than one instance of it was known to our voyagers; and in that, the man's life who was the cause of it paid the forfeit for his crime. Nor were those of the better sort who were unmarried more liberal of their favours; those who were being obvious prostitutes by profession. When they are afflicted by any disorder which they deem dangerous, they cut off the joint of one of their little fingers, fondly believing that the Deity will accept of that, as a sort of sacrifice efficacious enough to procure the recovery of their health. It was supposed from some circumstances, that though they believe in a future state, they have no notion of future rewards nor punishments for the things done here. They believe in a Supreme Being, but they believe also in a number of inferior ones: every island has its peculiar god, as every European nation has its peculiar saint. Capt. Cook thinks he can pronounce that they do not worship any thing that is the work of their own hands, or any visible part of the creation. They make no offering of hogs, dogs, or fruit, to the Otooa, as at Otaheite; but it is absolutely certain that even this mild, humane, and beneficent people use human sacrifices. The government, as far as could be discovered, appears to approach nearly to the feudal system, formerly established all over Europe. When any person of consequence dies, his body is washed and decorated by some women, who are appointed on the occasion, and these women are not, by their customs, to touch any food with their hands for many months afterwards; and it is remarkable, that the length of the time they are thus proscribed is the greater in proportion to the rank of the chief they had washed. Their great men are fond of a singular piece of luxury, which is to have women sit beside them all night, and beat on different parts of their body until they go to sleep; after which they relax a little of their labour, unless they appear likely to awake, in which case they redouble their drumming, until they are again fast asleep. These are some of the most remarkable opinions, customs, laws, and ceremonies observed at the Friendly Islands, and which we have endeavoured to collect into one point of view for the information of our more inquisitive readers.

NEW ZEALAND.

This country was first discovered by Tasman, the Dutch navigator, in the year 1642, who gave it the name of Staten Land, though it has been generally distinguished in our maps and charts by the name of New Zealand, and was supposed to be part of a southern continent; but it is now known, from the late discoveries of Capt. Cook, who sailed round it, to consist of two large islands, divided from each other by a strait four or five leagues broad. They are situated between the latitudes of 34 and 48 degrees S. and between the longitudes of 166 and 180 degrees E. of Greenwich. One of these islands is for the most part mountainous, rather barren, and but thinly inhabited; but the other is much more fertile, and of a better appearance. In the opinion of Sir Joseph Banks and Dr. Solander, every kind of European fruits, grain, and plants, would flourish here in the utmost luxuriance. From the vegetables found here, it is supposed that the winters are milder than those of England, and the summers not hotter, though more equally warm; so that it is imagined that if this country were settled by people from Europe, they would, with moderate industry, be soon supplied not only with the necessaries but the luxuries of life in great abundance. Here are forests of vast extent, filled with very large timber trees; and near four hundred plants were found here that had not been described by naturalists. The inhabitants of New Zealand are stout and robust and equal in stature to the largest Europeans. Their colour in general is brown, but in few deeper than that of a Spaniard who has been exposed to the sun, and in many not so deep; and both sexes have good features. Their dress is very uncouth, and they mark their bodies in a manner similar to those of Otaheite, which is called tattowing. Their principal weapons are lances, darts, and a kind of battle-axes; and they have generally shewn themselves very hostile to the Europeans who have visited them. As to their religious principles, they believe that the souls of such as are killed in battle, and their flesh afterwards eaten by the enemy, are doomed to perpetual fire; while the souls of those who die a natural death, or whose bodies are preserved from such ignominious treatment, ascend to the habitations of the gods. The common method of disposing of their dead is by interment in the earth; but if they have more of their slaughtered enemies than they can eat, they throw them into the sea. They have no such things as morais, or other places of public worship; nor do they ever assemble together with this view.

We conclude this article with the following character of Capt. Cook, to perpetuate the memory and services of so excellent a navigator and commander:

Perhaps no science ever received greater additions from the labours of a single man, than geography has done from those of Capt. Cook. In his first voyage to the South Seas, he discovered the Society Islands; determined the insularity of New Zealand; discovered the straits which separate the two islands, and are called after his name; and made a complete survey of both. He afterwards explored the eastern coast of New Holland, hitherto unknown; an extent of twenty-seven degrees of latitude, or upwards of 2000 miles.

In his second expedition he solved the great problem of a southern continent, having traversed that hemisphere between the latitude of 40° and 70°, in such a manner as not to leave a possibility of its existence, unless near the pole, and out of the reach of navigation. During this voyage, he discovered New Caledonia, the largest island in the Southern Pacific, except New Zealand; the island of Georgia, and an unknown coast, which he named Sandwich Land, the *Thule* of the southern hemisphere; and

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having twice visited the tropical seas, he settled the situations of the old, and made several new discoveries.

But the last voyage is distinguished above all the rest by the extent and importance of its discoveries. Besides several smaller islands in the Southern Pacific, he discovered, to the north of the equinoctial line, the group called the Sandwich Islands, which, from their situation and productions, bid fairer for becoming an object of consequence in the system of European navigation, than any other discovery in the South Sea. He afterwards explored what had hitherto remained unknown of the western coast of America, from the latitude of 43° to 70° north, containing an extent of 3,500 miles; ascertained the proximity of the two great continents of Asia and America; passed the straits between them, and surveyed the coast on each side to such a height of northern latitude, as to demonstrate the impracticability of a passage, in that hemisphere, from the Atlantic into the Pacific ocean, either by an eastern or a western course. In short, if we except the Sea of Amur, and the Japanese Archipelago, which still remain imperfectly known to Europeans, he has completed the hydrography of the habitable globe.

As a navigator, his services were not, perhaps, less splendid; certainly not less important and meritorious. The method which he discovered, and so successfully pursued, of preserving the health of seamen, forms a new æra in navigation, and will transmit his name to future ages among the friends and benefactors of mankind.

Those who are conversant in naval history need not be told at how dear a rate the advantages which have been fought, through the medium of long voyages at sea, have always been purchased. That dreadful disorder which is peculiar to their service, and whose ravages have marked the tracts of discoverers with circumstances almost too shocking to relate, must, without exercising an unwarrantable tyranny over the lives of our seamen, have proved an insuperable obstacle to the prosecution of such enterprizes. It was reserved for Capt. Cook to shew the world, by repeated trials, that voyages might be protracted to the unusual length of three, or even four years, in unknown regions, and under every change and rigour of the climate, not only without affecting the health, but even without diminishing the probability of life, in the smallest degree.

OF the discoveries which have been made in the eastern hemisphere, that merit particular notice, are New Holland, New Guinea, New Britain, and New Ireland. We shall also here add a more particular account of the Sandwich Islands.

CONTINENT OF NEW HOLLAND.

SITUATION AND EXTENT.

Miles.

Length	} 2400 }	between { 110° and 153° E. Long.
Breadth		
		{ 11° and 43° S. Lat.

It lies S.E. of the island of Java, and south of New Guinea, in the Great South Sea. For more than a century after its first discovery by the Dutch, in 1616, it was thought to be a part of a vast southern continent, the existence of which had been a favourite idea with many experienced navigators. The great extent of New Holland gives it an unquestionable claim to the name of CONTINENT.

The principal capes are, Cape York and South Cape, which form the extreme N. and S. points of the continent. Between these capes, along the eastern shore, are Cape Flattery, Cape Gloucester, Cape Townsend, Sandy Cape, Smoakley Cape, and Cape Howe. The most noted bays are Botany Bay, on the east side of the continent, Bateman Bay, south of it, and Glatshouse Bay, Harvey's, Kepple, Halifax, and Trinity Bays, all between Botany Bay and York Cape, on the eastern shore. Shark Bay lies on the west side of the continent, about south lat. 25° . The capacious gulf of Carpentaria, discovered in 1618, lies on the north; York Cape and Arneim's land make the two points of it.

The whole eastern coast of this continent, except the very southern point, was discovered and explored by Capt. Cook, in 1770, and is called NEW SOUTH WALES. It is claimed by England on the old principle of prior discovery.

From want of opportunity to examine, no considerable rivers have yet been discovered; but from the appearance of the country, it is conjectured that it is well watered. Two kinds of gum are produced here, called red and yellow gums; the former resembles *sanguis draconis*, but is perfectly soluble in water. It is drawn from the tree by tapping, or taken out of the veins of the wood, when dry, in which it is copiously distributed. It is a very powerful remedy in the dysentery.

The yellow gum, as it is called, is strictly resin, not being at all soluble in water: it has the resemblance of gamboge, but has not the property of staining. The plant that produces it is low and small, with long grassy leaves; but the fructification of it shoots out in a singular manner from the center of the leaves, on a single straight stem, to the height of twelve or fourteen feet. Of this stem, which is like some of the reed class, the natives usually make their spears. The resin is generally dug up out of the soil under the tree, not collected from it, and may perhaps be that which Talisman calls "gum lac of the ground."

There are a great variety of birds and animals found here, several of which, before the discovery of this place, were non-descripts.*

The natives go always uncovered, although it is observed they suffer sometimes from the cold. Those on the borders of the sea coast subsist principally on fish. On that part of the coast which the English have invaded, the natives have retired, and, from accounts, are much distressed for provision. A kind of twine is manufactured among them, which, with their fishing nets, is very neatly made from the flax plant. This plant promises to be very valuable for the purpose of making cordage, and the finest manufactures: it grows in Norfolk island (a small island N.W. of New Holland, on which the English are likewise making a settlement) in great plenty and with such luxuriance as to reach the height of eight feet.

Their cutting implements are made of stone. Several figures of animals, of shields and weapons, and even of men, have been seen carved upon the rocks roughly, indeed, but sufficiently well executed to indicate the object intended by them. On the top of the hills is the figure of a man, in the attitude assumed by them when they begin to dance, executed in a still superior stile. That the arts of imitation should thus precede in any degree those of necessity, seems to be an exception to the rules laid down in theory for the progress of invention. Though they have made no attempts towards clothing themselves, they are by no means insensible of the cold, and appear very much to dislike the rain. During a shower, they have been observed to cover

* The reader will find cuts, and a description of a number of these animals and birds, in "The Voyage of Governor Philip to Botany Bay," published by John Stockdale, London, in 1790.

their heads with pieces of bark, and to shiver exceedingly. Their method of kindling, fire is probably very laborious, as they are rarely seen without a fire actually made, or a piece of burning wood, which they carry with them from place to place, and even in their canoes. The perpetual fires, which in some countries formed a part of the national religion, had perhaps no other origin than a similar inability to produce it at pleasure, and if we suppose the original flame to have been made from lightning, the fiction of its coming down from heaven will be found to deviate very little from the truth.

In May 1787, the British government fitted out a squadron of eleven vessels, with 850 convicts, under the command of Arthur Philip, Esq. in order to form a settlement on this continent. The situation determined upon has been named Port Jackson; south lat. $32^{\circ} 52'$, east long. from Greenwich, $159^{\circ} 19' 30''$. This place is about nine miles from Botany Bay, and has a harbour capable of containing 1000 sail of the line in perfect security. A plan of a town has been regularly laid out, and from the latest accounts, the prospect was flattering to the new settlers.

On the first arrival of the English, the natives were found amicable, hospitable, unaccustomed to act with treachery, or to take the least advantage, and every precaution was taken to prevent this harmony from being interrupted; but from some disagreement with individuals, or what is more probable, a dislike of the encroachments on their territories, they appear to avoid any intercourse with their new neighbours.

The natives, like all other barbarous nations, have some customs peculiar to themselves. Governor Philip, in the interviews he had with the natives, observed that the women in general had lost two joints from the little finger of their left hands. He was not able to find out the occasion of this mutilation, but noticed that it was confined to the females.*

The men are distinguished in a different manner: their fingers are not mutilated, but most of them want the right front tooth in the upper jaw. They also have a custom of perforating the cartilage that divides the nostrils, and thrusting through it a long bone or stick.

The women are not treated with much tenderness; and are kept in great subordination by their husbands. They appear to be employed chiefly in the canoes, in which women have frequently been seen with young children at the breast.

The inhabitants are not numerous, and are of a chocolate colour, middle stature, and very active and courageous. Their food is chiefly fish, birds of various kinds, yams, fruit, and the flesh of the kangaroo, an animal resembling the opossum, and peculiar to this continent. Their weapons are spears and lances of different kinds, which they throw with great dexterity. They also use shields of an oblong form, made of bark.†

* Patterfon, in his Travels in Africa, tells us that he met with a tribe of Hottentots near Orange River, all of whom had lost the first joint of their little finger: the reason they gave for cutting it off was, that it was a cure for a particular sickness to which they were subject when young. It would be a curious coincidence should it be discovered that the natives of New Holland do it for any similar reason.

† For a continuation of the Discoveries in New South Wales and in the South Seas, with a particular account of the natives and of the new settlements, the reader is referred to The Historical Journal of the Transactions at Port Jackson and Norfolk Island, by Governor Hunter, in one volume 4to. printed for Mr. Stockdale.

NEW DISCOVERIES.

THE NEW HEBRIDES.

This name was given by Captain Cook to a cluster of islands, the most northerly of which was seen by Quiros, the Spanish navigator, in 1606, and by him named *Tierra del Espíritu Santo*. From that time, till Bougainville's voyage in 1768, and Capt. Cook's voyage in the *Endeavour*, in 1769, this land was supposed to be part of a great southern continent, called *Terra Australis incognita*. But when Capt. Cook had sailed round New Zealand, and along the eastern coast of New Holland, this opinion was fully confuted. On his next voyage, in the *Resolution*, he resolved to explore those parts accurately; and accordingly, in 1774, besides ascertaining the extent and situation of these islands, he discovered several in the group, which were before unknown. The New Hebrides are situated between the latitudes of $14^{\circ} 29'$ and $20^{\circ} 4'$ south; and between $169^{\circ} 41'$ and $170^{\circ} 21'$ east longitude. They consist of the following islands, some of which have received names from the different European navigators, and others retain the names which they bear among the natives, viz. *Tierra del Espíritu Santo*, Mallicolla, St. Bartholomew, Isle of Lepers, Aurora, Whittitude, Ambrym, Immer, Apee, Three Hills, Sandwich, Montagu, Hinchinbrook, Shepherd, Eorromanga, Irroan, Annatom, and Tanna.

Not far distant from the New Hebrides, and south-westward of them, lies *NEW CALEDONIA*, a very large island, first discovered by Capt. Cook, in 1774. It is about eighty-seven leagues long, but its breadth is not considerable, nor any where exceeds ten leagues. It is inhabited by a race of stout, tall, well-proportioned Indians, of a swarthy or dark chestnut brown. A few leagues distant are two small islands, called the Islands of Pines and Botany Island.

NEW GUINEA,

Till the late discoveries, was thought to be the north coast of an extensive continent, and to be joined to New Holland; but Capt. Cook discovered a strait between them which runs north-east, through which he sailed. Thus it was found to be a long narrow island, extending north-east from the second degree of south latitude to the twelfth, and from one hundred and thirty-one to one hundred and fifty degrees east longitude; but in one part it does not appear to be above fifty miles broad. The country consists of a mixture of very high hills and vallies, interspersed with groves of cocoa nut trees, plantains, bread fruit, and most of the trees, shrubs, and plants, that are found in the other South Sea islands. It affords from the sea a variety of delightful prospects. The inhabitants make nearly the same appearance as the New Hollanders on the other side the straits.

North of New Guinea is *NEW BRITAIN*, which is situated in the 4th degree of south latitude, and $152^{\circ} 19'$ east longitude from Greenwich. It was supposed to be part of an imaginary continent, till Capt. Dampier found it to be an island, and sailed through a strait which divides it from New Guinea. Capt. Carteret, in his voyage round the world, 1767, found that it was of much less extent than it was till then imagined to be, by sailing through another strait to the north, which separates it from a long island, to which he gave the name of New Ireland. There are many high hills in New Britain, and it abounds with large and stately trees. To the eastward of New Britain, and in both the above straits, are many islands, most of which are said to be extremely fertile, and to abound with plantains and cocoa nut trees.*

* The reader will be much gratified in the perusal of a new work of real merit, entitled "Discoveries of the French and Spaniards to the south-east of New Guinea," by Capt. Fleurieu, in one volume 4to. with twelve large plates, printed for Mr. Stockdale.

NEW IRELAND

Extends in length, from the north-east to the south-east, about two hundred and seventy miles, but is in general very narrow. It abounds with a variety of trees and plants, and with many pigeons, parrots, rooks, and other birds. The inhabitants are black and woolly headed, like the negroes of Guinea, but have not, like them, flat noses and thick lips. North-westward of New Ireland, a cluster of islands was seen by Capt. Carteret, lying very near each other, and supposed to consist of twenty or thirty in number. One of these, which is of a very considerable extent, was named NEW HANOVER; but the rest of the cluster received the name of the ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

SANDWICH ISLANDS.

Besides the voyages already mentioned, another voyage was performed by Capt. Cook and Capt. Clerke, in the Resolution and Discovery, during the years 1776, 1777, 1778, and 1779, in search of a north-west passage between the continents of Asia and America. After they had arrived at the Cape of Good Hope, they proceeded from thence to New Holland. In this course they discovered two islands, which Capt. Cook called Prince Edward's Isles. The largest, about fifteen leagues in circuit, is in lat. $46^{\circ} 53'$ south, long. $37^{\circ} 46'$: the other about nine leagues in circuit, lat. $46^{\circ} 40'$, and long. $38^{\circ} 8'$ east, both barren and almost covered with snow. From thence they proceeded to New Zealand, and afterwards they visited the Friendly and the Society Isles. In January 1777, they arrived at the Sandwich Isles, which are twelve in number, and are situated between $22^{\circ} 15'$ and $18^{\circ} 53'$ N. lat. The air of these islands is in general salubrious, and many of the vegetable productions are the same with those of the Society and Friendly Isles. The inhabitants are of a middle size, stout and well made, and their complexion in general a brown olive. Owhyhee is in circumference about 300 English miles, and the number of inhabitants is computed at 150,000. The others are large and well peopled. The natives are described as of a mild and friendly temper and carriage, and in hospitality to strangers not exceeded by the inhabitants of the Friendly Isles. On the 7th of February, being nearly in lat. $44^{\circ} 33'$ north, and long. $235^{\circ} 36'$ east, they saw part of the American continent bearing north-east.

Capt. Cook afterwards discovered King George's Sound, which is situated on the north-west coast of America, and is extensive; that part of it where the ships under his command anchored, is in lat. $49^{\circ} 36'$ north, and long. $233^{\circ} 28'$ east. The whole sound is surrounded by high land, which in some places appears very broken and rugged, and is in general covered with wood to the very top. They found the inhabitants here rather below the middle size, and their complexions approaching to a copper colour. On the 12th of May, they discovered Sandwich Sound, in lat. $59^{\circ} 54'$ north. The harbour in which the ships anchored, appeared to be almost surrounded with high land, which was covered with snow; and here they were visited by some of the Americans in their canoes. They afterwards proceeded to the island of Unalashka, and after their departure from thence still continued to trace the coast. They arrived on the 20th of August, 1778, in lat. $70^{\circ} 54'$, long. $194^{\circ} 55'$, where they found themselves almost surrounded with ice, and the farther they proceeded to the eastward, the closer the ice became compacted. They continued labouring among the ice till the 25th, when a storm came on, which made it dangerous for them to proceed; and a consultation was therefore held on board the Resolution, as soon as the violence of the gale abated, when it was resolved, that as this passage was impracticable for any useful purpose

purpose of navigation, which was the great object of the voyage, it should be prosecuted no farther; and especially on account of the condition the ships were in, the approach of winter, and their great distance from any known place of refreshment. The voyage, indeed, afforded sufficient evidence, that no practicable passage exists between the Atlantic Pacific oceans towards the north; and this voyage also ascertained the western boundaries of the great continent of America. On their return it unfortunately happened, that the celebrated and able navigator Capt. Cook, was killed in an affray with the natives, by an act of sudden resentment and fear, rather than from a bad disposition, on the island of Owhyhee, the largest of the Sandwich Isles, on the 14th. of February 1779; and his death was universally regretted, not only in Great Britain, but also in other parts of Europe, by those to whom his merits and public services were known. In his last voyage he had explored the coast of America, from $42^{\circ} 27'$ to $70^{\circ} 40' 57''$ north. After the death of Capt. Cook, the command devolved on Capt. Clerke, who died at sea on his return to the southward, on the 22d day of August 1779. The two ships returned home by the Cape of Good Hope, and on the 5th of October 1780, anchored at the Nore.*

* For a full account of all the Discoveries on the Coast of "NEW HOLLAND," prior to the British Settlement, see the following work, printed for Mr. Stockdale, in one volume 8vo.

THE HISTORY OF NEW HOLLAND,

From its first Discovery in 1616, to the present Time; with a particular Account of its Produce and Inhabitants, and a Description of Botany Bay: also a List of the Naval, Marine, Military and Civil Establishment. To which is prefixed, an Introductory Discourse on Banishment. By the Right Hon. Lord Auckland. Illustrated with Maps.

F I N I S.

DIRECTIONS FOR PLACING THE MAPS.

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|--|-------|------------------|
| 1. A Map of the Northern and Middle States, | - - - | to face Page 272 |
| 2. A Map of the States of Virginia, &c. | - - - | - - 475 |
| 3. A Map of Kentucky, with a Plan of the Rapids of the River Ohio, | - - - | - - 504 |

Morse's American Geography. 1794.

Received: The book was bound in full brown tree calf, plain endpapers. The endbands were red and white over cord. The title was in gold on a black leather label. There were gold and blind lines on the spine to indicate panels. There was also a decorative tool at each panel. The front board was detached, the back was loose and the endcaps were missing.

Treatment: The text was reinforced with stab joint endpapers. Adhesive used at the spine was Flex 720.

O. P.- C.

1984

